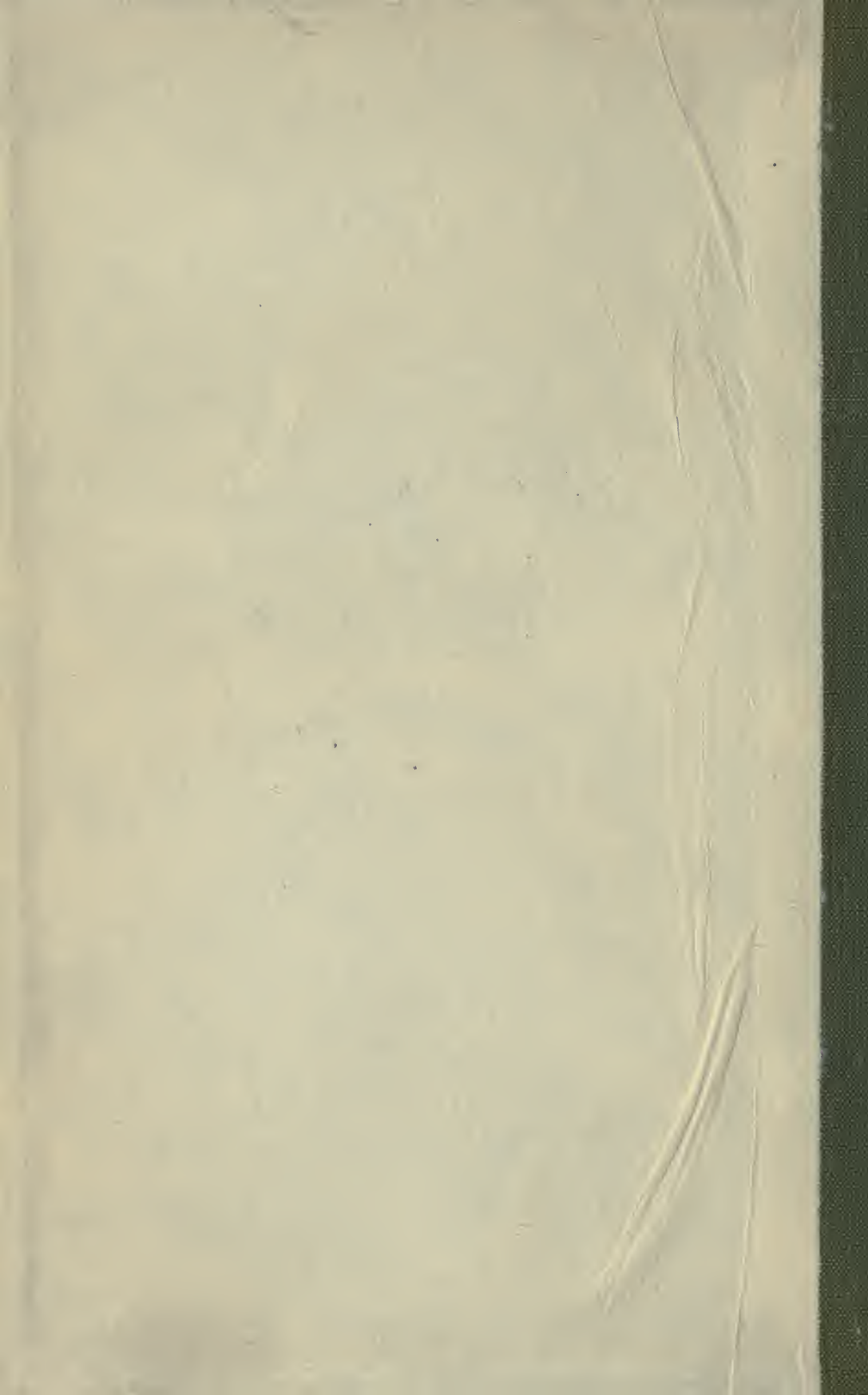


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THE  
*Juvenile Research*  
JOURNAL OF DELINQUENCY

III

Volume V

1920



*380101*  
*15.5.34*

PUBLISHED BI-MONTHLY BY  
WHITTIER STATE SCHOOL, DEPARTMENT OF RESEARCH  
WHITTIER, CALIFORNIA, U. S. A.

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## WHEN IS A MORON NOT A MORON?

CARROLL THOMPSON JONES, PH. D.

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Columbus, Ohio.*

The term "moron" as a name for the highest grade of feeble-mindedness is so well known that it was recently stated on the editorial page of a local newspaper that the well informed person must use the word occasionally to show that he is keeping up with the times. For years men who have been dealing with social problems have realized that it is the moron who makes necessary a large part of their work. Just what a moron is and what should be done with him has not been until recently a difficult question to answer. Any student of social psychology will tell you very glibly that a moron is a high-grade feeble-minded person with a mental age of eight to eleven years and that he should be segregated for life in an institution. This sounds simple indeed and if it were entirely true the problem would not be as complicated as it really is.

The psychologists in the army, however, have upset us completely in our thinking and we no longer feel at all confident of the soundness of our theories as to what a moron is nor as to how organized society is to treat him. Let us see just what these army psychologists have discovered to upset our pre-conceived notions regarding the moron so that we in great confusion ask. "When is a moron not a moron?" or "When is a moron not feeble-minded?" In the first place they have determined for the first time in the history of mental testing intelligence levels of thousands of adults representing probably a fair sample of the general population of the country. The results of their tests give startling facts regarding the distribution of general intelligence. The curve of distribution in Fig. 1 shows roughly the distribution of the ratings of men in the United States Army by letter grade from A to E-, with C taken as the average. This is interesting as showing that the distribution of general intelligence follows the normal curve of distribution with a slight skewing at the lower end of the curve. This skewing is probably due to the fact that a great many individuals have a lower grade of general intelligence than they would have possessed from purely hereditary causes.

Such a distribution, however, is not startling and throws no particular light on the problem of the moron. The reason for this is based on our ignorance of the meaning in popular terms of these letter grades. The use of the letter grades for rating general intelligence is new to us and consequently we do not have a proper apperceptive basis for interpreting them so that the full significance of any statement based on the use of such grades is bound to escape us unless we attempt to interpret these ratings in terms of some well known and commonly accepted standard for estimating general intelligence. The most commonly accepted standard is that of mental age as gained by the use of one of the several revisions and adaptations of the Binet-Simon scale or by the use of some other test of general intelligence which has been standardized for various mental ages.

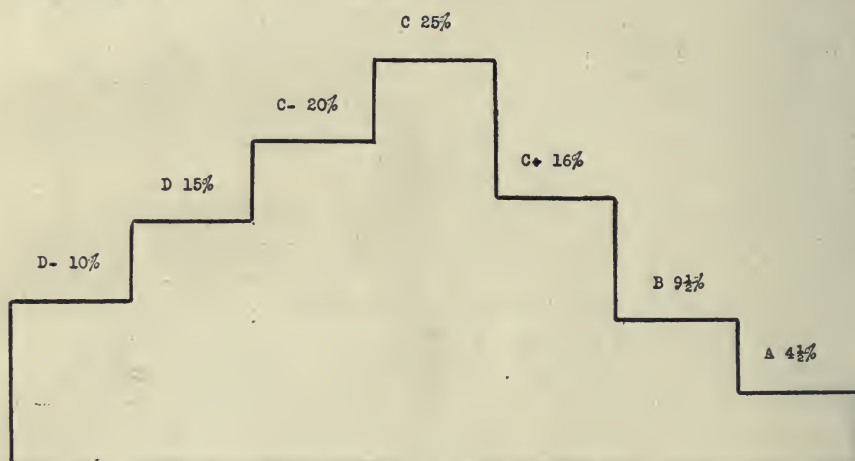


Fig. 1. Approximate distribution of intelligence ratings of men examined in U. S. Army.

A well known psychologist in a public lecture a short time ago referred to the Binet tests as the Ivory Soap of psychology, meaning that these tests are now so well known among psychologists that they might easily be compared to Ivory Soap as a household article. This statement is significant as it shows us that if we wish to be understood by a maximum number of people we must refer to grades of intelligence in terms of mental age. The Division of Psychology of the Surgeon-General's Office in Washington has published very little exact information which helps us in interpreting these letter



grades in terms of mental age. As near as can be estimated, however, from what has been published, the rating of D- is equivalent to a mental age of nine and one-half years or below; the rating of D is equivalent to a mental age rating of from nine and one-half years to eleven years; the rating of C- is equivalent to a mental age rating of from eleven to thirteen years; and the rating of C, which is considered the average, is equivalent to a mental age rating of from thirteen to fifteen years. Let us try to get the significance of this for gauging the intelligence level of the population at large. C, which is considered the average rating, is equivalent to a mental age rating of from thirteen to fifteen years which would mean on the face of it that the general intelligence level of the general population is about fourteen years. Since there is a much larger proportion of men in the groups below the average than there is in the groups above the average group it would seem that the average intelligence rating must be even less than fourteen, probably between thirteen and fourteen. While our interpretation of these letter grades is only approximate, yet the facts presented by the Division of Psychology are so striking that we are borne towards the inevitable conclusion that the general intelligence of the population at large is much lower than anyone, even the most pessimistic of psychologists, had been led to believe previous to the discovery made by psychologists in the army. Just what the significance of these facts is to psychologists, to educators and to social workers does not concern us particularly in a discussion of the moron as considered in pre-wartimes. We are mainly interested to know something of the group of men who according to our pre-wartime classification would fall into the group known as morons, namely those with a mental age rating of from eight to eleven years. Since the grade C- is roughly equivalent to a mental age rating of from eleven to twelve years it is evident that a part of these men rated as C-, perhaps from one-third to one-half of them would fall into our group of pre-wartime morons. The letter grade C is roughly equivalent to a mental age rating of from nine and one-half to eleven years and consequently all of the men given the rating of D would also fall within our classification of pre-wartime morons. The grade of D- is equivalent to a mental age rating of nine and one-half years or below and of course all men given this rating would be classified as either morons or imbeciles.

This means then, that the 10 per cent who were given the rating of D- on the army test, that the 15 per cent who were given a rating

of D on the army tests and a part of the 20 per cent (possibly one-third or one-half) who were given a rating of C- on the army tests, would be classified purely on the basis of mental age according to our pre-war standards, as morons. In other words, we should have from 25 per cent as the lowest estimate to 35 per cent as the highest estimated percentage of the general population classified as morons if we admit that our pre-wartime standards of classification on the basis of mental age are correct. This is, of course, absurd in view of our well known definition of feeble-mindedness which states that a person to be feeble-minded must be suffering from an arrest of cerebral development so great as to make him incapable of maintaining himself in society independently of external support or to use another common term, to be incapable of managing his affairs with ordinary prudence. It is evident at once that a great many of this 30 per cent of men in the army were capable of managing their affairs with ordinary prudence and that they were maintaining themselves independently of external support before Uncle Sam took them into the army. In other words, a large percentage of them were meeting the social criterion for normality and consequently could not, by the most elastic use of the term, be considered as feeble-minded.

It is very plain to even the casual observer that a new concept of the moron must be formed to fit the facts set forth by our army psychologists. Certain other facts noted by psychologists in the army and by other experienced examiners are to be taken into account in revising our concept of the highest grade of feeble-mindedness, that is, morosity. Any experienced psychological examiner will admit readily that there are a great many individuals with a mental age rating of eleven years who are much more socially incompetent than many other individuals with a mental age rating as low as nine years. In fact it will be quite as readily admitted that there are many individuals who test as high as eleven and possibly twelve years who cannot meet the social criterion of normality and who must accordingly be classified as mentally defective, while there are also, on the other hand, large numbers of men who have mental age ratings as low as nine years and yet who are earning a good living, who are not dependent upon charitable organizations for help in any way and who are bringing up a family of children. This leads to the inevitable conclusion that mental age rating taken alone is not sufficient for making a diagnosis of feeble-mindedness or normality in persons who



test between eight and eleven years mentally. There must be something, vague as it seems to be at present, which is the determiner for normality or feeble-mindedness which cannot be expressed in terms of intelligence level. To what extent this vague something depends upon the temperamental characteristics of the individual, to what extent it depends upon the early training of the individual, to what extent it depends upon the social heredity of the individual, we are not prepared to determine without a much more extended study of the whole problem.

The fact that the diagnosis of mental defect depends upon factors other than those of mental age, forces us to emphasize very much more strongly the social criterion as a part of our definition of feeble-mindedness. Our definition as stated by Tredgold still holds good and it does enable us to take account of the facts which have been brought to our attention by the results of mental testing in the army camps. If we realize that before we can classify a person as feeble-minded he must be suffering from an arrest of cerebral development which is roughly measured by a mental age rating of from eight to eleven years to such an extent that he cannot maintain himself independently of external support or cannot manage his affairs with ordinary prudence then we must realize that our examination should determine in some way whether or not he can meet this social criterion.

The Bureau of Juvenile Research in all of its clinical work is attempting to recognize this fact and to adapt its methods of diagnosis and its treatment of all persons who have a mental age of between eight and twelve years to take account of this new concept of the moron. A plan of differential diagnosis for all cases who have a mental age rating on the Binet Scale of between eight and fourteen or fifteen years has been worked out with appropriate recommendations for training for each form of diagnosis that is made. The various diagnostic terms that are being used with the recommendations for treatment for each are outlined below.

1. *Deferred.* Within this group we include every case about which there is any serious doubt. All cases where the symptoms are not pronounced enough to warrant a diagnosis are placed in this group. For purposes of disposition, however, we make what we call a "guarded" diagnosis. To all intents and purposes no final diagnosis has been made and yet some recommendation for the treatment and disposition of the case must be made. As a basis for making

this recommendation, the clinical examiner decides as accurately as the facts brought out throughout the whole examination will permit as to what the probability is. He then bases his recommendation for treatment and disposition on this "guarded" diagnosis. In all such cases an arrangement for a second examination within six months or a year is made. If on re-examination facts are brought out which make it seem wise to change the diagnosis this is done and the recommendations for treatment are changed accordingly. When the skill and knowledge of clinical examiners is made perfect then this group of deferred cases will disappear as the examiner will then be able to determine from the findings of the examination what the final diagnosis should be. More refined examinational methods and more complete analyses of a child's mental and physical condition will result in reducing this group of deferred cases. At present it contains cases which rightfully belong in all of the other groups but our knowledge, we must admit, is not sufficient at present to enable us to properly classify these cases.

2. *Feeble-minded.* The cases which we diagnose as definitely feeble-minded are those persons who have had an opportunity to adjust themselves socially and have repeatedly failed. They have been given a mental examination and are found to be of low intelligence; furthermore, they have been given several chances to make good in society and have shown this to be impossible. Feeble-mindedness is the only logical diagnosis and in such cases institutional care is the only logical recommendation. This group is composed largely of older boys and girls who have been in court several times.

3. *Potential feeble-minded.* Certain children who are not yet old enough to have been given a chance to earn their own living can be diagnosed at an early age on account of a few definite symptoms which the experienced examiner has learned to recognize. In cases where it is safe to predict that the individuals will never be able to get along without serious trouble the examiner makes a diagnosis of potential feeble-minded. The recommendation in these cases is to always place the child under as good conditions as possible and return for a re-examination at yearly or half-yearly periods, until such time as he shows that he is either normal or definitely feeble-minded.

4. *Insane.* A small percentage of cases whose level of intelligence is between eight and eleven years are definitely insane. Such cases



are at once referred to the insane hospital, their future disposition to depend upon the effects of treatment. In some few cases there is a possibility of recovery sufficient to warrant release, in others the recovery may be only partial and yet sufficient to warrant their being transferred to the Institution for the Feeble-Minded for permanent care, and in others they will have to remain indefinitely in the hospital.

5. *Psychopathic.* This group of cases comprises those individuals whose intellectual development is slightly or seriously uneven, who by mental tests show signs of mental deterioration and whose conduct is unusual or erratic. The recommendation in such cases depends upon the seriousness of the psychopathy and upon the chances that the individual has had to make good in the world. Often a change of environment is recommended and every opportunity is given for making normal social adjustments before institutional care seems inevitable. In a large percentage of psychopathic cases the cause of the deterioration seems to be syphilis and in such cases treatment is prescribed and a study of the results is made at frequent intervals.

Any one of the conditions described above may be combined with any other so that the diagnosis in such cases is not easily made. In making recommendations, the condition which seems to be the most important in determining the subject's reactions to social situations is considered. A consideration of the above diagnoses shows that the treatment of the pre-wartime moron, that is, the person who at maturity will have mental age of between eight and eleven years depends largely upon the age at which it can be known with a fair degree of certainty that a child falls in this group. If he can be taken in hand at an early age and can be given the type of training that his low mentality warrants, that is, a training for some practical life occupation then the prognosis is good. Consequently with younger children the diagnosis is very frequently deferred and practical industrial training aiming toward the formation of good habits and conduct which if firmly fixed will hold over after the period of training is ended is recommended.

The diagnosis and recommendations in older cases depends largely upon the social history of the individual. If the person has a record of steady employment for some years and some unusual occurrence has caused him to get into trouble it seems unwise to consider him feeble-minded until he had had one, two and perhaps more trials to

again fit himself into a routine where he can get along without friction. On the other hand, the defective delinquent who has a long court record and has failed miserably time and again in his attempts to go straight can be immediately diagnosed as feeble-minded and placed in the proper institution.

Let us again return to our first query, "When is a moron not a moron?" For all practical purposes a pre-war-time moron, or in other words, a person with a mental age of eight to eleven years is not feeble-minded until it has been determined with certainty either by trial or by some other method that he cannot maintain himself independently of external support or that he cannot manage his affairs with ordinary prudence. In view of this changed concept of the moron, the Bureau of Juvenile Research is diagnosing as feeble-minded only those persons who have after several trials shown that they cannot earn a living and that for their own protection and for the protection of society they must have institutional care.

## THE SOCIAL UNIT PLAN AS A MEANS OF DEMOCRATIZING SOCIAL WORK

EDWARD T. DEVINE, PH. D.

*Editorial Staff of the Survey, former Dean of the New York School of Civics and Philanthropy*

*Editorial Note:* For the past two and a half years the National Social Unit Organization has been conducting an experiment in community organization in the Mohawk-Brighton district of Cincinnati, Ohio. According to the plans announced by the National Organization before entering the district, the experiment was to run for three years at the end of which time it was to be studied, evaluated, and a future program agreed upon.

Slightly in advance of this period, and largely to insure continuous effort, the National Organization had the work studied a few weeks ago by twelve experts representing as many fields of social endeavor, most of them acting as the representatives of national committees. Those who made the studies were Robert E. Chaddock, Secretary, American Statistical Association, Statistics; Miss Zoe LaForge, of the Federal Childrens' Bureau, Public Health Nursing; Dr. Haven Emerson, head of the New York Tuberculosis Committee, Preventive medicine; Charles Stelzle, religious editor of the Newspaper Enterprise Association Church Organization; Evelyn Dewey of Columbia University, Education; Rowland Haynes, New York Community Service, Recreation; Mark M. Jones, Secretary of the Employment Managers Assn., Business; John Walker, ex-president of the Illinois Federation of Labor, Labor; John Lovejoy Elliott, of Hudson Guild, Community Work; and Dr. Edward T. Devine, Social Service.

Dr. Devine's investigation dealt with the Social Unit plan as a means of securing the democratic control of social service. The following is a summarization of his report which was presented at the National Social Unit Convention October 24th. The result of the Convention was an endorsement of the continuation of the experiment, its expansion to include a wider variety of population and an educational campaign to secure a wider interest in the results. The creation of powerful national advisory groups to assist in the continued experiment was also endorsed.

### EXCERPTS FROM DR. DEVINE'S REPORT

The Mohawk-Brighton District, lying a little west of the center of the city, is centrally located, with an industrial population now estimated at somewhat less than 15,000. It is a typical industrial population, mostly English-speaking, largely of German stock, with very few Negroes and comparatively few recent immigrants. Small business, the ordinary resident professions, and some modest factories are to be found in the district; schools, churches, and a branch library fairly supply recognized educational and spiritual needs.



Six months had been spent in the general city campaign before the selection of the Mohawk-Brighton District. Another six months was spent in organizing the district. When the first definite service was started in December 1917, only twelve of the blocks had completed their elections. The Social Unit Experiment, conceived as an organized, going concern, has therefore been in operation less than two years..... It would be an over-estimate rather than an under-estimate to say that the Social Unit has had a full calendar year of actual experience upon which to base an evaluation.....

Viewing the Social Unit experiment in the Mohawk-Brighton District from the point of view of social work, one of the first questions to be answered is whether the experiment is genuinely democratic. There can be no doubt that in the objective sense that prospective beneficiaries are consulted in advance as to what their needs are and have the opportunity to take the initiative, both in defining their needs and in formulating measures for meeting them, the plan is democratic. Beneficiaries are consulted, because all the residents in the district are consulted, and there is no possibility in advance of any discrimination between beneficiaries and benefactors. All of the residents take part or may take part in the election block councils; the block councils actually elect the block workers, block workers in turn, become acquainted with all of the people living in the block; block workers, when they come into the Citizens Council, look upon themselves as delegates and are chary of making decisions until they have consulted their constituents.....

There is no evidence that national, municipal, or district executives have arbitrarily imposed their views and plans upon the district, while there is much evidence to the contrary. Members of the staff appear to differ in the normal degree among themselves about most matters, but they are apparently unanimous and enthusiastic in their confidence in the social Unit plan and loyal to the fundamental principle of it that the people must decide for themselves what their needs are and that measures must not be imposed upon them without their full comprehension and concurrence.

In this sense the democracy of the Social Unit plan has not been challenged by any one with whom I have had an opportunity to discuss the matter in Cincinnati.....

As far as the giving of free service during the experimental period is concerned, this is felt to be justified by considerations similar to those which lead to the sending of a new periodical for a brief

period to possible subscribers. Acquaintance is invited as a means to conversion. The chance for a hearing is essential to acceptance of a program. Familiarity with a new form of social organization is a preliminary condition of demanding it. Another not inapt analogy might be found in medical education. The National Social Unit Organization was frankly desirous of demonstrating a plan in which it thoroughly believed and of trying out certain tentative proposals which might be of great value. Just as patients obtain exceedingly valuable surgical and medical treatment as an incident to medical education, so the people of the Mohawk-Brighton District might, with entire propriety, accept whatever services were offered as an incident to the training of executives and social workers and the trying out of experiments which if demonstrated would be of value everywhere. ....

A unique feature of the plan seems to be that its founders and supporters are not trying to "put over" anything except what they announce. They are interested in health, education, religion, morals, good citizenship and other concrete aims, but only secondarily. They are primarily and persistently interested in developing a plan by which people may understand, as the result of their own experience, thinking and exchange of views, what degree and kind of health, education, recreation, etc., are desirable; and through which they can put into operation means of securing these desirable ends for themselves. They recognize that in order to secure such results, skilled expert service is essential, and then when the people decide what they want, the experts must be called in to decide on the basis of their own knowledge and experience how to secure those results; that, on the other hand, the measures and instruments proposed by the experts must be so far intelligible to and acceptable by the citizens as to win their approval.

This is the Social Unit conception of democracy. It goes deeper than particular political institutions or forms of government. It penetrates to the very heart of the social order and raises the challenge as to whether the people are or are not capable of deciding, with stimulated and socially controlled expert assistance, what their needs are and how they shall be met. This conception of democracy is akin to that of the New England town meeting, the Declaration of Independence, the Bill of Rights. It may not be compatible with some aspects of party government or with some interpretations put upon existing constitutions. It has at least a superficial family



resemblance to syndicalism, national guildism, and the Soviet idea. There is no reason to think, however, that the Social Unit plan has been inspired by any of these, or that any of the features which have distinguished these three systems in France, England and Russia are to be expected in connection with the Social Unit, except their democracy. There is, of course, no suggestion in the literature or in the practice of the Social Unit of any belief in violence or of any attempt to subvert existing political institutions. During the War the Social Unit became the natural means through which liberty loans were subscribed and drives for the moral-making agencies were carried on. Its loyalty and patriotism, judged by its actions and teachings, have not been open to question.....

I think it represents fairly the general situation to say that all of the agencies engaged in field-work regard the intensive block organization as an advantage, as creating a favorable condition for a high quality of social service, whether of a curative and remedial or of a preventive and educational kind.....

Turning from the testimony of particular social agencies to more general considerations as to the effectiveness of the Social Unit plan, it is obvious that such a thorough organization by blocks would naturally lead to an improvement in case work. Need is discovered and reported earlier than under other circumstances, so that there is a greater opportunity for good relief work. Members of the Social Workers Council who undertake particular responsibilities are expected to report back to their associates as to what they have done in the cases assigned to them, and this has a beneficial influence in securing prompt action, and also tends to eliminate friction where more than one agency is working with the same family. It appears from the records that far more than the average amount of careful consideration is given to the family problems. Miss Richard says that on examining her records she finds hardly a case in this territory that has not been discussed at least twenty-five times in the Social Workers Council. When one plan fails, another is tried, until it seems hardly an exaggeration to say that the only unsolved problems are those in which a particular need exists for which no provision is made by either public or private agencies. Discussions in the Social Workers Council bring out the importance of such remedies as a mental diagnosis, a Wasserman test, on the one hand, while on the other nurses learn the value of a social diagnosis and become increasingly willing to take the advice of social workers in their own province.

The Social agencies of the city have been brought closer and made more accessible to the people of the district. The neighborhood has come to appreciate more fully the variety of resources, sometimes in a distant part of the city, through the machinery provided by the Social Unit, whereby a given local need can be connected more quickly with the person or agency best able to meet it. Social workers get from the block workers useful basic information in regard to particular families before paying their first visit. They are able, in turn, to explain their plans through the block workers to the neighborhood and thus secure a better understanding of what the social worker is trying to do. The block workers, even in this brief period, have obtained some education in social work, and they have been able to pass on their new point of view to a greater or less extent to the people in their respective blocks. Some of the block workers have been attempting to break down the barriers between the native and foreign-born residents in their neighborhood. Some residents seem to have acquired the habit of looking beyond individual problems to the causes underlying them and to the means of getting them remedied.

The plan of the Social Workers Council, which in theory includes representatives of all social agencies doing field-work in the district, as well as members of the visiting staff of the Social Unit, is to discuss at its regular weekly meetings family problems arising which involve the co-operation of more than one agency. These cases may be reported in the meeting by any member of the Council, but most of them have come from the Social Unit nurse or from the block worker in whose district the family lives. If the family has a record at the Confidential Exchange, the agencies registering are notified that it is coming up for discussion. Additional information from the block worker's census and from the nurse's records is compiled on what is known as a basis card, and also on the social diagnosis sheet designed by the Council for its own use. A synopsis of plans made in the Council and reports by the agencies appointed to carry out such plans is carried on the reverse side of the social diagnosis sheet. No record is closed until some definite conclusion is reached as "cured" or "incurable", as the case may be. ....

Summing up the evidence in regard to results achieved:..... I am of the opinion that definite tangible and substantial result have been obtained; that they can be measured in the testimony of cooperation agencies and in the information supplied by the executives and



workers in the Social Unit and by the families in the district; but that they are not capable of a quantitative statement in statistical form. I have no doubt, from my observations and from the interviews which I have had with workers, residents, outside friends, and critics, that the Social Unit has added substantially to the physical and moral well-being of the residents of the district; that it has led to more efficient and discriminating relief, to more thorough and constructive diagnosis of the needs of families in trouble; that it has promoted neighborliness and sociability; that it has made the ordinary family residing in the district more hospitable to visitors who come with a helpful purpose, and more discriminating as to the probable effect of sanitary and social measures brought forward for their benefit. I cannot discover that these results have been secured at a disproportionate cost. Opinions on this subject must be expressed with diffidence, as there is almost no basis for comparison. There appears to be, however, no indication of extravagance in salaries or in administrative expenses, assuming that an intensive neighborhood organization is desirable. There is no doubt that members of the staff have worked with enthusiasm and unflagging energy to promote a democratic working organization, and that they have obtained a gratifying response. Whether the new habits are sufficiently ingrained and the new associations are sufficiently well grounded to be permanent can be ascertained only as external support is diminished or withdrawn.

## JUVENILE DELINQUENCY LAWS IN FRANCE \*

J. B. WHITTON

*Oakland, California*

France, like England, suffered a marked increase in juvenile delinquency during the war. Although the number of young criminals decreased during the first year of the war, each subsequent year showed great increases, until during the last two years of the fight the authorities frankly admitted that the machinery of the law and correction was totally inadequate to meet the problem.

The causes were in general as follows: (1) the loss of paternal control, due to the fathers long absence at the front; (2) the loss of maternal control, especially among the poorer classes, because so many mothers were employed in factories; (3) the demand for the labor of boys had made them independent in means and in feelings, so that they were subjected to unusual temptations; (4) overcrowding of cities because of the presence of great numbers of soldiers, refugees, or munition workers had lowered the general morality and increased the temptations which lead children to wrongdoing.

The problem, then, was a result of changes which war has wrought upon the environment of the child. But it was aggravated by the inadequacy of the correctional system. Let us examine briefly into this system.

The French juvenile court is as yet an experiment. Going into effect March 4, 1914, but five months before the war, it has had no chance to develop under normal conditions. The system in itself does not establish what Americans consider the true juvenile court, but in the main merely changes certain portions of the procedure of the regular courts. The two essential elements were considered to be: (1) a court set aside for the trial of child offenders; (2) the co-oper-

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\*The author of this article went to France in the spring of 1917 with the University of California Ambulance Corps. When the U. S. Army took that service over, in the fall of that same year, weak eyes kept him out of the service and he accepted a post with the American Red Cross in Paris. Later he joined the Foreign Legion of the French Army and when demobilized was an officer in the French Artillery. While with the Red Cross, Mr. Whitton served as a legal adviser to the Children's Bureau, of which Dr. William Palmer Lucas was chief. Under Dr. Lucas' direction a study was made of the French laws for women and children, including the Juvenile Court Law. The author believes that some of the French laws are in advance of ours.—*Editor.*

ation of the law with private societies for the reform of juvenile delinquents. Certain reform societies have been developed in France, (such as the *Patronage des Enfants* of M. Rollet at Paris), which receive delinquents, find homes for them in the country, and supervise the care and reform of children even until manhood. The law of 1912<sup>1</sup> gave such societies semi-official standing, and provided that children could be committed to them instead of to state prisons or reform schools, the state to pay a certain sum for their care.

If a child commits a crime,<sup>2</sup> its case is handled as follows: it is brought before the *juge d'instruction* for preliminary hearing, and pending the final disposition of the case the court may order the child placed in the custody of some reliable person or institution instead of in jail. If no person or institution is available, or if the court believes it wiser, the child can be confined in jail, separated from other prisoners. At this preliminary hearing, the court enters a verdict of *non-lieu* if there is not sufficient evidence to hold the child.

If the court decides that the child should be held over for trial, he appoints a *rapporteur* or investigating officer, who, in accord with the French system of procedure, goes out and gathers the evidence. He is supposed to inquire into the moral and material situation of the family, the character and antecedents of the child, its education, environment, and may suggest best methods for its reform. This *rapporteur* is in no sense like our probation officer except that he obtains evidence of all circumstances of the case. The court may order a medical examination; but it is not compulsory or even usual in these cases. After receiving the report of the *rapporteur* the judge sends the case to the trial court.

If the child is below 13, the court will be a special chamber of the civil court; if over 13, a special chamber of the criminal court. In large counties, as Paris, a special court is provided for children; in other counties, the usual court sits on special days upon cases of juvenile delinquency. In any case the court consists of three judges. While the public is excluded, there are usually present from a dozen to twenty-five people, including from one to six policemen, clerk, functionaries, witnesses, members of family, and representatives of charitable institutions.

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1. "Law of July 22, 1912;" "Decree of August 31, 1913"; "Circular of January 30, 1914".

2. A "child" is a person under 18 years of age.



The ordinary rules of criminal procedure are applied, except that the court is given greater discretion in disposing of the case. If the accusation is proven the courts must then decide whether or not the offender acted with "discernment", that is, whether he acted with understanding that he was committing the crime. If under the age of 13 the child is presumed to have acted without discernment. In such cases the child is put on probation, and placed at home, in a reform school, or in a charitable institution for a definite period. At the end of this period, a re-hearing of the case is had; if the child is then taken from its parents, the latter may petition after a year has elapsed, for its return. The case may be brought up at any time for a re-hearing, upon the recommendation of the probation officer. These probation officers must visit the children from time to time and report to the judge.

If the child has acted with discernment, and is between the ages of 13 and 16, he is subject to the penalties of the criminal law, somewhat modified. In general, if imprisoned his term will be about one half of that which an adult would receive. If he is over 16 and has acted with discernment he is subject to all the penalties of an adult offender.

To one who visits the various institutions of the correctional system of France, the following faults appear in the present treatment of juvenile delinquents in that country:

(1) No provision is made for the appointment and salary of a trained probation officer. Where probation is employed, volunteers are utilized.

(2) No detention home has been provided, although private institutions, when available, are utilized by the court.

(3) It is still possible to send to prison a child of 13 to 18, pending trial; and to commit for a term of years a child of 13 to 16, who has committed a crime with discernment, or a child of 16 to 18 who has committed a crime. In the child's prison of Paris I found children confined in separate cells, without recreation, or any correctionary or educative employment. Their only task was the making of small paper flags.

(4) No provision is made for medical or mental examination, except where there is an obvious presumption of mental trouble, or when a young prostitute is suspected of having a venereal disease. M. Paul Kahn, who represents the *Patronage des Enfants* in the Juvenile Court of Paris stated that out of 20,000 delinquents examined

in the last four years, only 70 were given mental or physical examination by court order.

(5) The juvenile court is so organized as to make an informal examination of the child's case almost impossible. The presence of so many officials in the court room tends to frighten the child; the formal procedure makes any "heart-to-heart talk" between judge and child impracticable.

(6) The law pre-supposed the existence or creation of "patronages" or private societies for the care of juvenile offenders, especially to handle first offenders, and wayward children before they had actually committed some serious offense. But these societies have not developed as was expected. This is natural, of course, since the war commenced soon after the law started to operate. In many counties no such societies exist; in others, they are overcrowded and utterly inadequate. Thus the judge must commit the child to the state prisons or reform schools, which at present do not meet the problem.

In general, one's impression is that the idea of punishment is too prevalent in France. The need of reform and re-construction of the delinquent are being more and more impressed upon the authorities, and the new law is a big step in advance. But what France lacks more than anything else is a determined movement to better the environment which leads to the making of young criminals. The great playground movement which has swept all over America has as yet made no impression in France. And therefore, although her correctional system can be greatly improved, France's greatest need today in solving this great problem, is a nation-wide movement to better the environment of its children.

# The Journal of Delinquency

Published bi-monthly by Whittier State School

WHITTIER, CALIFORNIA

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Entered as second-class matter March 27, 1916 at the Post Office at Whittier, California, under the Act of August 24, 1912. Acceptance for mailing at special rate of postage provided for in Section 1103, Act of October 3, 1917, authorized August 3, 1918.

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Vol. V

January, 1920

No. 1

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## CORRESPONDENCE AND DISCUSSION

### REPORT OF THE PSYCHOLOGICAL DIVISION OF MICHIGAN DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH FOR APRIL, MAY, AND JUNE, 1919

The Psychological Division of the Michigan Department of Health was organized March 15, 1919. The actual making of the mental examinations began on the first of April. This report covers the first three months' work.

During this period 169 examinations were given, but at the writing of this report seven of these had not been completely diagnosed and so were ignored in the statistical summary, which thus includes 162 cases. Of these 162 cases two were diagnosed as insane, were given further examinations by psychiatrists and consequently committed to state institutions for the insane.

The remaining 160 cases were fit subjects for the measurement of intelligence, and a statistical study of the results is of interest. I will state briefly the method used in making the examinations. Each subject was given the Stanford Revision of the Binet-Simon tests, and the mental age estimated on this basis. Other tests were used to supplement the Binet in practically every case. These were chosen according to the needs of the individual case and were mainly for the purpose of discovering special abilities and disabilities. As a basis for statistics it seems advisable to take into consideration only the mental age.

The accompanying table shows the distribution, that is, the percentage of cases at each mental age, ranging from 7 to 18 years. All the subjects were 16 years



or above chronologically and hence have reached the limit of mental development. It is therefore not necessary to allow for further growth in potential ability.

Mental Age	No. of Cases	Per cent
7- 7.11.....	7.....	4.0
8- 8.11.....	12.....	7.5
9- 9.11.....	13.....	8.1
10-10.11.....	28.....	17.5
11-11.11.....	28.....	17.5
12-12.11.....	17.....	10.6
13-13.11.....	24.....	15.0
14-14.11.....	20.....	12.5
15-15.11.....	2.....	1.25
16-16.11.....	5.....	3.1
17-17.11.....	3.....	2.0
18-18.11.....	1.....	.6
Total.....	160	

Diagnosis	No. of Cases	Per cent
Feeble-minded.....		31.0
Institutional.....	37	
Release.....	12	
Borderline.....	34.....	21.0
Subnormal.....	19.....	11.9
Dull-Normal.....	37.....	23.0
Normal.....	17.....	10.6
Superior adults.....	4.....	2.5
Total.....	160	
Mental disease.....	2	
Total.....	162	

20 per cent rank below 10 years—institutional cases by conservative estimate.

55 per cent rank below 12 years—definitely feeble-minded by Dr. Goddard's standard.

81 per cent rank below 14 years—below average according to U. S. Army standard.

94 per cent rank below 16 years—below average by Dr. Terman's standard.

I am giving the exact mental ages rather than the diagnosis, because standards of mentality differ among psychologists, and are changing as we obtain more data regarding actual conditions. The interpretation of these results depends largely on the point of view, in comparing them with other findings.

At the present time it is generally conceded that no adult with a mental age below ten years is capable of living a normal social life under ordinary conditions of society. These are considered institutional cases. Twenty per cent of our subjects fall into this division.

Until a few years ago the upper limit of feeble-mindedness was set at 12 years. This was found by mental tests made on individuals who were already inmates of the institutions for the feeble-minded by reason of having shown that they lacked the mentality to manage their own affairs. This standard is now thought to have been too high owing to the fact that we find many individuals with the mental age of from 10 to 12, who are capable of living normally outside of institutions. However, it is interesting to note, that according to this less conservative estimate 55 per cent of our subjects are institutional cases.

Recently in determining the intelligence of the drafted men in the U. S. Army the average mental age was found to be 14 years. 81 per cent of our subjects fall below this level. The average mental age of our group of subjects is 11.5.

Until last year when the results of the army tests were made known the average mental age of the general population was thought to be 16 years. 94 per cent of our subjects fall below this level. Thus according to Dr. Terman's standards there are only 6 per cent of our group who can be considered average or above.

In a general way it matters little whether we interpret these results by a conservative or liberal standard. It is clear in either case that feeble-mindedness is a very large factor in the problems of venereal disease. The diagnosis which we made are given in a separate list. We found 31 per cent definitely feeble-minded, and in 23 per cent of our cases we recommended commitment to the institution for the feeble-minded at Lapeer. I believe that the majority of these commitments have been legally made, but am not able to state the number exactly as some are still being handled by our court worker.

It will be noticed that our group falls into three large divisions:

1. The group below 10 years. (20 per cent).
2. The group of the mental age of 10 to 14 years. (61 per cent).
3. The group above 14 years. (19 per cent).

The existing institution for the feeble-minded at Lapeer will care for the first group when its capacity is enlarged. The third group possess sufficient intelligence to respond to efforts to readjust them in society. The middle group is unprovided for, and this middle group contains the majority of our venereal patients. Not definitely feeble-minded, but retarded mentally, once having become delinquent, reform under the ordinary conditions of society is most difficult, under favorable circumstances they develop many qualities which tend to make them desirable citizens. Turn them back to their own surroundings and they return to their old habits. It is inevitable. In most cases the old environment means unsettled and broken homes, from which with a few exceptions they come. They must have training, sympathy and supervision, re-education in its largest sense. How are we to give it to them? There is only one solution. We need an institution for defective delinquents with a mental age of 10 to 14 years. By means of such an institution this large middle group could be re-educated and readjusted to society.

FRANCES A. FOSTER, *Psychologist*



## PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

**Bach, Theresa.** *Educational Changes in Russia.* Bulletin No. 37, Dept. of the Interior, Bureau of Education. pp. 26.

Prior to the establishment of the Provisional Government of 1917 in Russia, education was denied the peasants who comprised approximately 85 per cent of the total population. The Provisional Government separated Church and School, placing the school administration in the hands of local rural councils. Democratization of the schools ensued. With the establishment of the Bolshevik regime, control of the schools passed from the rural councils to the Soviets, the latter representing the masses only. Parents associations, which had since 1905 done valued work, persisted and were definitely recognized as good factors. Restrictions regarding the educating of the various religious and non-Russian groups and regarding home instruction were removed. An "educational ladder" with cultural and vocational schools paralleling each other was established. Normal schools and teacher's institutes were provided to fit the teachers of both sexes for the lower and higher elementary schools. A reform of the Russian spelling has produced one based upon scientific philology. The university has been freed from state control and interference and placed upon a basis similar to that occupied by the western university. Likewise, the unfair restrictions upon the admission of students have also been removed. Among these restrictions now removed is that barring women from university instruction. Not the least of these wide-sweeping reforms has been the realization of the need for schools for adults where they might learn to read and write. (E. K. B.)

**Ball, Jau Don.** *The Correlation of Neurology, Psychiatry, Psychology and General Medicine as Scientific Aids to Industrial Efficiency.* Reprinted from the American Journal of Insanity. Vol. LXXV, No. 4. pp. 521-555.

One of the most logical means of producing a closer co-operation between employer and employee is the suiting the man to the job through the study of his physical, nervous and mental fitness. The results of such a study is the subject of this article. The conclusions are drawn from the results of (1) general medical; (2) neurological; (3) psychiatric; (4) psychological; and (5) social examinations. The report gives in detail the method of procedure, including outlines of the medical and neurological tests, questionnaires used, the "Stearns' " test and the charts showing graphically the individual picture as worked out from the results. In nearly every case the laboratory estimate tallied with that of the foreman and explained the difficulty as well as giving recommendations for the correct co-ordinating of the individual's equipment and abilities with the needs of the industrial plant. The value and need of such examinations is amply demonstrated. Practical suggestions are offered for the providing of smaller plants with the benefits of such examinations. (E. K. B.)

**Downey, June E.** *The Will-Profile.* University of Wyoming Bulletin. Vol. XV, No. 6A. pp. 37.

A tentative scale for measuring the amount and character of volitional power possessed by an individual is offered in this bulletin. The basis of the tests is handwriting used under varying conditions of space and speed. The tests furnish



data on the following points: 1. speed of decision; 2. co-ordination of impulses or the proper handling of a complex situation; 3. freedom from inertia; 4. speed of movement; 5. tenacity; 6. flexibility or adaptability; 7. accuracy; 8. motor impulsion; 9. resistance; 10. assurance. A graph or "volitional pattern" may be drawn at the conclusion of the tests, thus securing a complete picture of the volitional side of the reagent. The author states that, as yet, there has been found no correlation between intelligence and the will-profile or volitional pattern. (E. K. B.)

**Greenfield, Arthur D.** *Some Legal Aspects of the Narcotic Drug Problem, with Particular Reference to Medical Practice.* Reprinted from the New York Medical Journal for July 19, 1919. pp. 10.

This brief discussion centers about the legal aspect of a physician's prescription of narcotic drugs to an addict. The discussion is occasioned by the recent interpretation of the Harrison narcotic law by the Federal Supreme Court. Two points are emphasized: the absolute precedence of the Federal law over State or Municipal law in case of conflict, and the legal status of a physician's prescription. In so much as the law, in order to be constitutional, had to be framed as an internal revenue measure, its chief prohibition is against untaxed sale. The physician is restricted to administration for purely curative and alleviative purposes. The provision of narcotics to an addict in order to keep him comfortable and prevent his securing a larger supply elsewhere is definitely illegal. It behoves the physician to be careful of his diagnosis and subsequent treatment. In short, narcotics may be supplied, to persons not addicts, to addicts for "tapering off treatment" where such proves to be necessary, and in treatment of other pathological conditions.

(E. K. B.)

**Greenfield, Arthur D.** *Treatment of Drug Addiction.* Reprint No. 540 from the Public Health Reports. U. S. Public Health Service, Vol. XXXIV, No. 29, July 18, 1919. pp. 1577-1579.

It is not the purpose of this article to pass on the merits of treating drug addicts, but rather to advise the medical profession on what constitutes legitimate professional practice. The treatments may be divided into two classes, the "ambulatory" and the "institutional"; i. e., the former in which the patient administers the drug himself, and the latter in which the drug is given by the physician or nurse. It has been found that cures have rarely been effected by the ambulatory treatment and the patients may become infected because the hypodermic is not properly sterilized. Physicians should feel free to treat such cases according to their judgement and it is desirable that patients should feel free to go to reputable physicians rather than depend on questionable sources for the relief which they may need. (H. P.)

**Kansas Commission on Provision for the Feeble-Minded.** *The Kallikaks of Kansas.* Report of the Commission, January 1, 1919. Publication authorized by Governor Henry J. Allen, Kansas State Printing Plant, Topeka, 1919. pp. 31.

A summary of the conclusions reached by the commission on provision for the feeble-minded regarding the extent and character of feeble-mindedness in the state of Kansas, and making recommendations as to the care of those who are incapable of managing their own affairs because of mental retardation. Typical case studies of defective families are given, showing the extent of delinquency and pauperism attendant upon feeble-mindedness. Colony care for the defective

is urged as being absolutely necessary, and special classes in the schools are recommended for those who are retarded but can still profit by school instruction. A summary of state legislation regarding feeble-mindedness is appended. Two major conclusions are reached: (1) that too much is already known about feeble-mindedness to delay longer, and (2) that care will cost less than neglect. (H. P.)

**Lathrop, Julia C.** *Income and Infant Mortality*. Reprinted from American Journal Public Health, Vol. IX, No. 4, April 1919, pp. 270-274.

This paper attempts to indicate a few facts gathered in this country bearing on infant mortality. The three important facts are insufficient wage, a mother who is obliged to labor prior to and after her child's birth, and a community that is careless about its housing conditions. Many of our large industrial cities were investigated in this study. In these places the homes of men with varying wages could readily be found. In the homes of the poor, many of the mothers worked and as a consequence the infant mortality was just about 50 per cent more than in the homes where the mother was not forced to work. Over-crowding in many of the homes was another cause of death. (H. P.)

**National Association for the Advancement of Colored People.** *The Negro and the Labor Union*.

This brief report states that the American Federation of Labor, in conference in June 1919, at Atlanta City, passed a resolution looking to the inclusion of negroes in labor unions throughout the country on an equal basis. The situation is and has been so entirely different from any "equal basis" condition that the passing of this resolution marks a turning point in the negro labor situation. (E. K. B.)

**Pollock, Horatio M. and Nolan, William J.** *Sex, Age and Nativity of Dementia Praecox First Admissions to the New York State Hospital 1912 to 1918*. Reprinted from the State Hospital Quarterly, August, 1919. State Hospitals Press, Utica, N. Y. 1919. pp. 1-18.

In distributing the patients of both sexes into age groups, the variations are quite striking and show that sex must be reckoned with in considering the cause of the disorder. Between the ages of 15 and 35 years, the rate of entrants is higher among males than among females; while above the age of 35 the rate is higher among females. The highest admissions among males, 265.2, is found in the age group 25-29 years; the highest rate among females, 199.0, varies between 35-39 years. The general rate of dementia praecox first admission for the 6½ years among the native population was 75.2 per 100,000; among the foreign born for the same period, 161.4. A number of interesting charts and tables are shown which give the distribution of cases at different ages between the two sexes; also the distribution among the different nationalities. (H. P.)



Williams, J. Harold. *The Intelligence of the Delinquent Boy*. Journal of Delinquency Monograph No. 1, January, 1919. Whittier, California. pp. 198.

This monograph is the result of the study of 470 delinquent boys, mostly of Whittier State School, but includes some cases also from the detention homes at Los Angeles, San Diego, and the California George Junior Republic. The author examined all with the Stanford Revision of the Binet-Simon tests; trained field workers supplied the family histories and observations on home and environmental conditions, and a medical examination was made of each case. The cases are classed into four "Social-Intelligence" groups, each group being then discussed in order. These are as follows:

1. Superior, with an I. Q. above.....	1.10
2. Average-normal, with an I. Q. from.....	93-1.10
3. Dull-normal " " " ".....	83-.92
4. Borderline, " " " ".....	75-.82
5. Feeble-minded, " " " below.....	.75

This grouping is based on (1) intelligence quotient, (2) vocational and social adaptability, (3) heredity, environment and personal history, and (4) results of medical examination. After a mental examination a case was first tentatively classified on the basis of the I. Q. The further consideration of the data from the other three sources called for a modification of this preliminary classification in but a few cases. The percentage of cases of delinquents belonging to each of these groups is compared with the percentage of Terman's 1000 non-selected school children falling under the same I. Q. classification, with the following results:

	470 Delinquents	1000 non-selected school children.
Superior .....	3.0	20
Average-normal.....	19.2	60
Dull-normal.....	20.6	10
Borderline.....	27.2	8
Feeble-minded.....	30.0	2

The I.Q.'s of the feeble-minded ranged from .47 to .78 with a median of .67. Nearly all were of moron grade, a few might be classed as imbecile, but none as idiots. Ability to meet social requirements runs closely parallel with grade of intelligence through the several social-intelligence groups. With the higher grades of intelligence other traits become more responsible for delinquency. Those belonging to the borderline group are not likely to have normal success in life, and without adequate training do little better than the high grade moron. The dull-normals escape delinquency for the most part, though their social conduct is on the whole inferior. The small number of delinquents belonging to the superior group disproves the idea that many delinquents are unusually bright. No delinquent act was observed that could not have been performed by a boy of average intelligence. The family history studies revealed the fact that the frequency of mental deficiency among parents and other relatives of the delinquents decreased as the grade of intelligence of the latter increased.

Most of the 470 delinquents studied had committed offenses repeatedly. The results show no striking relation between the nature of the offenses and grade of intelligence, except that the feeble-minded figure less in forgery, drunkenness,



and larceny, and more in murder, arson, and assault. The average I. Q. for those who committed offenses against person was .73; for offenses against property, and against peace and order the average was in each case .80. There seems to be no indication that the more intelligent offenders escape detection and arrest more frequently than the less intelligent. This is perhaps because few juvenile offenses are planned.

Negroes and Mexican-Indians show a greater tendency to delinquency than the whites. Of the total number of delinquents the percentages were as follows:

White	Mexican-Indian	Negro
72.6	15.1	12.3

But the 1910 U. S. census for California gives only 6.05 per cent of the general population as Mexican-Indian and only 0.9 per cent as colored. This relationship is probably due to the higher intelligence of the whites. The average I. Q.'s for the delinquents of the three races were, White, .82; Mexican-Indian, .69; Colored, .77. Probably the same relations hold for the three races in the general population. The author disagrees with the suggestion sometimes made that different standards should be followed in the diagnosis and classification of members of different races, and of different social status. It is necessary to place the delinquent in custody, "whether he is White, Colored or Indian, whether he is American or foreign-born, and regardless of the social status of the family from which he comes." And further, an Indian with a certain mental age "is just as truly feeble-minded, so far as concerns his relation to the average American community, as a White or Colored boy would be under the same conditions."

There is no evidence in the results that there is any direct inheritance of delinquency as such. Other factors, related to delinquency, are inherited, of which lack of intelligence is the chief one. The intelligence of 950 relatives of the delinquents was determined, giving the following percentages:

Superior	Average-normal	Feeble-minded
1.8	66.8	31.4

Delinquents frequently come from poor homes, but the condition of the home is often the result of poor intelligence of the occupants. The explanation that delinquency results so often from poor home conditions lacks force because there has been no standard by which to compare homes and classify them in this respect, and because it overlooks the probable cause of the home condition. The author devised a scale for grading homes on which a home might receive an index of from 1 to 25. The results of the use of this scale in grading 162 homes show that the home of the delinquent is not consistently inferior to that of non-delinquent boys. The fundamental causes of delinquency are farther back, in the inherent traits of the individual child.

Home conditions and neighborhood conditions usually go together, and both are directly related to intelligence. The person of inferior intelligence produces the poor home and settles in the poor environment. A scale for grading neighborhood conditions was devised, similar to the one for grading home conditions, and used for the 162 cases mentioned, with similar results. The influence of home and environment in producing delinquency is not denied, but the extent of this influence depends on the physical and mental endowment of the children in question. Children with unsocial tendencies at an early age should be placed under better supervision.

The general discussions in the several chapters are followed by selected histories illustrating the matter discussed. The author deserves much credit for a broadminded attack of this most baffling of all problems of state dependents—the delinquent. Each of the several lines of investigation has been followed out in a truly scientific spirit, as regards methods, analysis of results, and conclusions given. The reader feels that the results have been allowed to speak entirely for themselves, which gives an unusual force to the conclusions. Special points of interest are: (1) The classification of cases and their study under the several “social-intelligence” groups, instead of singling out only the feeble-minded for consideration. (2) The introduction of more objective methods of getting data on home conditions, and neighborhood conditions. The two scales for grading these conditions have been more fully described elsewhere. (3) The conservative procedure in the classification of cases as feeble-minded. (4) The contention that we must have one and the same standard in diagnosis and classification irrespective of race, nationality, or social condition. This is a timely suggestion. The opposite has been proposed recently by different writers. The conflict arises, of course, from different points of view. The standpoint taken by the author is that of the practical requirements for the community and nation. The other point of view has in mind doing justice to the individual in the immediate classification. An individual is not to be classified as feeble-minded, let us say, if his intelligence is not so far below the average of his race. There is no objection to this view for scientific purposes, but practical requirements demand that feeble-mindedness be defined not alone from the standpoint of intelligence, but from several standpoints combined, all related to the relation of the individual to the community and state. Further, such a multiplicity of standards to fit each race, nationality, and social condition, could result only in confusion.—(*F. Kuhlmann.*)

## PERIODICAL LITERATURE

**The Generation and Control of Emotion.** “(1) Emotion is only one aspect of the internal adjustment which an organism makes in order more completely to adapt itself to sudden changes in its environment. The function of emotion is to reinforce the ‘interest’ of an instinct as higher control over mechanically-fatal massive responses develops and checks the later. (2) The visceral and somatic concomitants of emotion are not responsible for originating the affective state, but are anticipatory physical adjustments which enable the organism to put forth all its energy effectively to satisfy the instinctive process stimulated. (3) The optic thalamus is the center of consciousness of the emotional state. Its activity is normally held in control by discriminative activities arising in the cerebral cortex. (4) Dissociation is merely the obverse side of integration, and may take place at any level at which, phylogenetically or ontogenetically, integration has been brought about. The latest acquired and most complicated integrations are the most easily dissociated. (5) The energy of an instinctive process can find outlet along psychically equivalent paths, but attempts entirely to thwart satisfaction lead to apparently fortuitous ‘displacement of the affect’ and its attachment to associated ideas, and they are only too likely to result in manifestations comprehensively termed psychoneurotic. Ultimately then our problem



resolves itself into the finding of useful psychical equivalents and the inculcation of these as desiderata. The earlier in the life of the individual education along such lines is begun, the easier will be the process and the stronger and the more permanent the result."—*Alfred Carver*. *British Journal of Psychology*, X-1, Nov. 1919. pp. 51-65. (Quoted)

**The New Moron.** The experience of army psychologists has shown the need for a new concept of morosity which will include the fact that many men of low intelligence are making good in society. The limits of the borderline group must be extended probably to include all persons of a mental age of eight to fourteen years, and a final diagnosis of feeble-mindedness made only after definite attempts to make social adaptations have been made. Success or failure in life depends not only upon intelligence level, but also upon temperamental characteristics, environment and training for this environment. The latter three factors may be controlled to a certain extent, and it is by proper control, particularly of training, that society can hope to make a greater percentage of individuals in the borderline group self-supporting.—*Carroll Thompson Jones*. *Training School Bulletin*, XVI-5, Sept. 1919. pp. 76-80. (W.W.C.)

**The Relation of the Juvenile Court to the Community.** The Canadian Juvenile Delinquents Act of 1908 was based upon the necessity for segregating the youthful offender from the criminal. This segregation benefits both the individual and society. Much responsibility for dealing with delinquents must be placed on the probation system. There are many offenders, however, who fail to respond to probation, and in these cases an analysis of the facts is especially necessary. Juvenile offenders may be roughly divided into three social groups: (1) the normal child in the normal home; (2) the normal child in the abnormal home; (3) the abnormal child in the abnormal home. For the first group probationary supervision ordinarily succeeds. For the second group the solution lies in the removal of the abnormal conditions. The third group—the abnormal child—constitutes a real menace to society. From this class come prostitutes and criminals. Many recidivists are found to be abnormal. Whatever the defect may be, the treatment should be based on the constitution of the child, and not in the application of the theories of punishment. The work of the psychologists and psychiatrist is indispensable to the courts and institutions dealing with these children. Canada is just awakening to the need for more attention to its juvenile problems, and her welfare workers hope for a flood of light in this direction.—*Helen G. MacGill*. *Canadian Journal of Mental Hygiene*, I-3, Oct. 1919. (J.H.W.)

**The Mental Status of Truants.** Scientific investigations of truancy are of a comparatively recent date. In the study of 608 unselected truants, 265 were over 14 years old. A valuable contribution on non-attendance was made in 1917 by Edith Abott and Sophonisba Breckinridge. The historical, legal and social aspects of the problem are worked out in compendious form. One short chapter is devoted to the relation of truancy and non-attendance to mental and physical defects. The relation between truancy and school retardation is worked out in the case of 1,092 boys. A comprehensive study of the mental, physical, and social facts of truancy in New York was made in 1915. There were 150 children tested, of which 67 per cent were found normal, 8 per cent borderline and 33 per cent defective. A statistical study was made of 102 truants at the Whittier State School. Two were of superior intelligence, 16 were average-normal, 22 dull-normal, 25 borderline and 37 feeble-minded. In comparing these boys with



a group of unselected delinquents, it was found that the truant group had a higher percentage of mentally defective boys. It still remains an important matter to know whether the truants form a selected group. The present study included 608 unselected cases. The percentage of truants whose intelligence is above the normal median is about 15 per cent. In the graph it plainly shows that the truants form a subnormal group. The largest percentage of truants does not fall to the definitely defective nor to the normal but in the questionable group. Placing the truants in an ungraded class can only remedy when an industrial training is included which will meet the individual need.—*Louise E. Poull*. Ungraded, V-1, Oct. 1919. pp. 1-8. (M. S. C.)

**The Power to Exclude Defective Children from Schools.** This article deals with the recent decision of the State Supreme Court of Wisconsin in regard to the action of a city board of education in excluding an objectionable child from school. The child, while normal mentally and able to keep up to grade, was severely hampered by a nervous and paralytic affliction which rendered him unsightly, required extra attention and caused him to speak in an extremely unpleasant voice. On the basis of these conditions, the child was excluded from the public schools. The Supreme Court, in ruling against the boy's demand to be educated in the public schools, maintained that general welfare must take precedence over individual rights; and since his exclusion was essential to the best interests of the school, the School Board was acting within their legal rights in excluding him.—From the *Journal of American Medical Association*. Reprinted in *School and Society*. X-256, p. 613. (E. K. B.)

**Vocational Education as a Preventive of Juvenile Delinquency.** The lack of necessary equipment with which to earn an adequate living is apparently related to the production of juvenile delinquency. In a study of the school children of the United States, it was found that 90 per cent of the school children between the ages of 14 and 16 were out of school, and that 50 per cent of those have only a fifth grade education or less. The school work is abandoned for an industrial life, for which they are unfitted, and they drift from job to job or loaf and get their start for the juvenile court. Many school courses are made so uninteresting that they create a distaste for school work, and for this reason many children go to work. The need for vocational training for our young people is shown by the number of enrollments in private commercialized colleges, trade and correspondence schools. In Chicago alone, the money spent for instruction of this sort more than equals the amount spent on all the high schools. In two reform schools, it is shown that the average age of the boy is 14 years. These boys are given half time in vocational training and half time in elementary school training. About 77 per cent of these boys make good. The question presents itself, would these boys have become delinquent if the public schools could have given them the same kind of training? This need for vocational training has been felt by social workers and criminologists for some time and the thing that its advocates need to do is to survey the whole field; psychology, pedagogy, sociology, economics, the histories of industries and labor movements and thus establish points of contact in all of these branches. Hence we believe that the greatest results from a scientific standpoint is the reformation of the delinquent and the greatest good will come by establishing more practical institutions of learning known as manual and vocational training schools, where practical instruction of every day life can be had.—*Arthur Frank Payne*. *School and Society*, X-253, Nov. 1, 1919. pp. 509-513. (M. S. C.)

## NOTES AND COMMENT

Dr. J. E. W. Wallin, who has been Chairman of the Committee on Defective Children for the Missouri Children's Code Commission during the last four years, has been appointed Chairman of the Committee on Mental Defectiveness for the Missouri Conference for Social Welfare and elected President of the Department of Special Classes of the Missouri State Teachers Association. The latter department was organized at the recent meeting of the association.

Dr. David Spence Hill has been elected President of the University of New Mexico. Dr. Hill was formerly director of research for the public schools of New Orleans where he made some important studies in juvenile problems.

Professor Vernon Kellogg is on extended leave of absence from Stanford University to engage in work with the National Research Council.

Dr. Samuel C. Kohs of Reed College has been made diagnostician to the Juvenile Court of Portland, Oregon.

The Ohio Institution Journal announces the completion of the new buildings for the Bureau of Juvenile Research, erected at a cost of more than \$100,000. The work of Dr. H. H. Goddard as director of the Bureau is highly commended by members of the State Board of Administration.

Dr. Thomas H. Haines is engaged in a survey of feeble-mindedness in Mississippi, acting as scientific adviser to the Mississippi Mental Hygiene Commission. He writes: "We have ready for introduction into the Senate and House a new insanity code which will preserve all that it worth preserving in the present statutes and at the same time put the commitment of the insane in the hands of physicians instead of professional jurymen. In addition to this it will provide for the scientific organization of hospitals, change their names to state hospitals, do much to improve their management from partisan politics, provide for voluntary commitment, temporary care and emergency commitment of the insane and also provide for the community service of the state hospitals."





# The Journal of Delinquency

Volume V

MARCH, 1920

Number 2

## THE INTELLIGENCE OF MILITARY OFFENDERS

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The original data for this study were obtained from the testing of the military prisoners at the United States Disciplinary Barracks, Fort Leavenworth, Kansas, where the writer was stationed as psychological examiner during the winter of 1918-19. These prisoners were, with only a few exceptions, men convicted by general court-martial in many camps in this country and overseas. Trial by general court-martial takes place only for serious offense, and so it will be seen that the group concerning which the facts in this article are presented is made up of the worst offenders of the army.

The psychological examination of the Leavenworth prisoners was carried out exactly as were all the other army psychological examinations. For the benefit of those not familiar with the work of the army psychologists it may be well to state that the men were examined and upon the basis of the examination were rated according to their intelligence in one of the five groups designated by the letters A, B, C, D, and E. A designated the highest ranking individuals, and E the lowest. Two forms of group examinations were used, one for the men who were fairly proficient in the reading and writing of English, and the other for men who were relatively illiterate in any language or who did not have sufficient knowledge of English to do themselves justice in the first test. While the procedure in all the camps was not uniform, it was general practice to send to the second examination all men who had not completed the work of the fifth grade of an American school. In case a man failed on the group test, he was given a special individual examination by a trained examiner using one of the standard scales for the measurement of intelligence, the Stanford-Binet test or the Point Scale, and



the final rating of the subject was given on the basis of this test.

In Table I is presented a distribution of the intelligence ratings of the Leavenworth prisoners compared with a distribution of grades received by a large sampling of the white draft. This latter distribution is the one presented by the Psychological Service as representative of the mental level of the million and a half men examined by the army psychologists.

TABLE I. INTELLIGENCE RATINGS OF PRISONERS CONFINED AT UNITED STATES DISCIPLINARY BARRACKS, FORT LEAVENWORTH, KANSAS.

	E, D-	D	C-	C	C+	B	A	No. Cases
Numbers	201	633	700	799	538	300	197	3368
Per cents	6.0	18.8	20.8	23.8	16.0	8.8	5.8	
White draft								
Per cents	7.1	17.0	23.8	25.0	15.2	8.0	4.1	94004

The distributions in Table I indicate that the Leavenworth prisoners form a group which is average or normal as far as intelligence is concerned. There is a slight tendency for the prisoners' grades to run higher, but this tendency is hardly strong enough to be called significant. Further study of individual records suggested that the distribution of grades might be influenced by the inclusion of the records of the conscientious objectors, who, as a group, tested very high. To determine the influence of this factor the records were separated into two groups, those of the objectors and those of the non-objectors. The distribution for these two groups is shown in Table II. Except for a very slight exchange in the C- and D groups, the distribution for the non-objectors is practically identical with that for the white draft. The objectors make a considerably large proportion of higher grades than do the other prisoners, but their relative number is so small that their grades do not greatly influence the total Leavenworth distribution. It seems reasonably clear that the men serving sentences for serious military offenses do not differ greatly in intelligence from any group which might be selected at random from the army.

TABLE II. COMPARISON OF THE INTELLIGENCE RATINGS OF CONSCIENTIOUS OBJECTORS AND NON-OBJECTORS AMONG THE PRISONERS CONFINED AT LEAVENWORTH. NUMBERS EXPRESS PERCENTAGE MAKING EACH GRADE.

	E, D-	D	C-	C	C+	B	A	No. Cases
Objectors	4.5	6.2	16.5	14.2	20.9	10.2	14.2	473
Non-objectors	6.2	19.2	22.0	24.3	15.4	8.7	4.5	2895
Total	6.0	18.8	20.8	23.8	16.0	8.8	5.8	3368

Although the above facts indicate that low intelligence is not a factor of extreme importance in the more serious forms of military delinquency, it is quite likely that among the 25 per cent of Leavenworth prisoners rated D or E some of the men did get in trouble through the lack of adequate mentality. Data obtained concerning some of the prisoners under confinement in the camps for less serious offenses furnish some support for this theory. From the records of psychological examinations on file in the office of the Surgeon General, were collected the figures presented in tables III, IV, and V. The distributions of grades shown in these tables are probably typical of the ratings obtained by this class of men throughout the camps of the country.

TABLE III. NUMBERS OF WHITE MEN IN VARIOUS GROUPS TRIED BY SPECIAL AND SUMMARY COURTS-MARTIAL WHO MADE EACH INTELLIGENCE RATING.

	D-,E	D	C-	C	C+	B	A	Total
Camp Dix June, July	99	133	86	111	36	9	5	479
Camp Dix Oct., Nov.	81	103	114	76	46	25	15	460
Camp Dix All Cases	180	236	200	187	82	34	20	939
Camp McClellan	27	20	13	3	1	0	1	65

TABLE IV. PERCENTAGES OF WHITE MEN IN VARIOUS GROUPS TRIED BY SPECIAL AND SUMMARY COURTS-MARTIAL WHO MADE EACH INTELLIGENCE RATING. BASED ON TABLE I.

	D-,E	D	C-	C	C+	B	A	No. Cases
Camp Dix June, July	20.7	27.7	18.0	23.2	7.5	1.9	1.0	479
Camp Dix Oct., Nov.	17.6	22.4	24.8	16.5	10.0	5.5	3.3	460
Camp Dix All Cases	19.2	25.2	21.3	19.9	8.7	3.6	2.1	939
Camp McClellan	41.5	30.8	20.0	4.7	1.5	0	1.5	65
White Draft	7.1	17.0	23.8	25.0	15.2	8.0	4.1	94004

Considering all the white men tested at Camp Dix, Table IV shows that 19.2 per cent of these minor offenders had an intelligence rating of D-or E. This means that they are in the lowest ten per cent

of the army as far as intelligence is concerned, and when a man could not make a higher rating than this it was the practice of the psychological examiner to recommend discharge for mental deficiency, or assignment to a development battalion, or to some duty which may be performed by men of low mental calibre. If this group is considered in relation to what may be called "average intelligence of the army",—the C rating on the army scale,—we find that 65.7 per cent of these men are below the average, while only 14.4 per cent are above it. Only a few cases were examined at Camp McClellan, but the tendency of these is very plain. Nearly 42 per cent of the offenders rated only E, and 92.3 per cent were unable to make even the average rating in the army examination. These figures are quite striking when compared with the intelligence ratings of the white draft. Only 7 per cent of the whole draft were rated E, and only 48 per cent made grades below the average. This means that the low grade men are two or three times as likely to get into trouble as are the men of average intelligence, and are from four to six times as likely to become offenders as are men of superior ability.

TABLE V. INTELLIGENCE RATINGS OF NEGROES TRIED BY SPECIAL AND SUMMARY COURTS-MARTIAL. 484 CASES FROM CAMP DIX.

	D-,E	D	C-	C	C+	B	A	No. Cases
Numbers	188	161	72	44	14	5	0	484
Per cents	39.2	33.6	15.2	9.2	3.0	1.0	0	
July and August draft								
Per cents	31	38.0	16.0	9.5	3.0	2.0	.5	5258

The distribution of the intelligence ratings of 484 negro offenders is shown in Table V. Thirty-nine per cent of these men were rated E, but it must be held in mind that 31 per cent of the entire negro draft at this camp during the months of July and August were not able to make more than an E grade. The evidence among the negroes, therefore, is not so clear, but it still indicates the greater tendency of the man of low intelligence to become an offender.

There is a vast difference in the distribution of the intelligence ratings of the minor offenders as compared with the distribution of grades made by the more serious offenders at Leavenworth, as is shown in Table VI. This probably means that while the men of low intelligence are much more likely to get into trouble, their delinquencies are likely to be of a much less serious nature.

In addition to the study of the general level of intelligence of mili-



TABLE VI. PERCENTAGE COMPARISON OF INTELLIGENCE RATINGS OF PRISONERS CONFINED IN CAMPS AND THOSE CONFINED AT LEAVENWORTH.

	D-,E	D	C-	C	C+	B	A	Total Cases
Dix and McClellan prisoners	20.6	25.5	21.6	18.9	8.3	3.4	2.1	1008
Leavenworth prisoners	6.0	18.8	20.8	23.8	16.0	8.8	5.8	3364
White draft	7.1	17.0	23.8	25.0	15.2	8.0	4.1	94004

tary offenders, an examination was made of the relation of intelligence to the different kinds of crime. For this purpose the crimes for which the men were sentenced to the institution were divided into general categories as follows:

- A. Crimes of acquisitiveness, as larceny, robbery, forgery, fraud.
- P. Crimes of violence, as assault, fighting, murder, etc.
- S. Sex crimes of all descriptions.
- M. Purely military crimes, absence without leave, desertion, escape, sleeping on post, drunk on post, discredit to uniform, allowing escape of prisoners, etc.
- G. Military crimes of an aggressive nature, as disrespect to officer, mutiny, disobedience of orders, insubordination, etc.
- D. Disloyalty, disloyal statements, disrespect to U. S., etc.
- R. Conscientious objectors of the religious type.
- K. Conscientious objectors of the political type.
- Q. Conscientious objectors because of being alien enemies, having alien enemy relatives, of non-citizenship, and other like draft irregularities.

This classification was made only after considerable study of the data at hand, including the past report of the institution and the individual record cards of the men. While the records of only 2416 men make up the data for this study, there is no reason to believe that there is any factor of selection in the group, since the men were taken at random just as they came to the examinations. The distribution of grades shows a larger proportion of high marks than does that of the 3368 men shown in Table I in this than in the other group. It is practically certain that the distribution within the various crime categories present accurate pictures of the facts as they are.

The ordinary prisoners and the men in the disciplinary battalion are listed separately. The men in the disciplinary battalion are those prisoners whose records during the first month or two of their confinement are such that they are given a tryout with the idea of restoring them as soon as they show themselves fit to the regular organization

of the army. They are still held under considerable restraint, but half their time is spent in regular military work and they also have many privileges not accorded to the other prisoners. They are a somewhat selected group.

Table VII shows the distributions of the intelligence ratings of the men in the various crime groups.

TABLE VII. PERCENTAGE TABLE OF INTELLIGENCE RATINGS OF LEAVENWORTH PRISONERS IN VARIOUS CRIME GROUPS.

	D-,E	D	C-	C	C+	B	A	Total Cases
A Reg.	.6	9.1	16.6	26.2	24.8	12.8	8.2	320
A Bat.	0	0	9.5	29.6	33.3	19.0	19.0	21
P Reg.	4.7	19.2	29.0	24.0	14.4	9.5	0	42
P Bat.	0	20.0	0	50.0	10.0	10.0	10.0	10
S Reg.	0	5.3	11.0	42.2	11.0	26.4	5.3	19
S Bat.					50.0		50.0	2
G Reg.	8.1	20.2	21.6	28.2	12.5	3.1	4.7	128
G Bat.	7.4	11.1	14.8	33.3	18.5	7.4	7.4	72
M Reg.	7.2	19.7	21.6	26.3	13.5	8.6	4.0	1071
M Bat.	1.2	14.7	25.6	29.6	15.7	8.8	4.3	305
D Reg.	12.4	6.2	0	34.8	15.7	18.9	12.5	32
D Bat.			50.0	50.0				2
R	0.1	4.1	13.7	27.0	26.5	15.1	12.8	218
K	0	17.1	10.7	29.5	20.2	13.2	39.3	84
Q	15.3	37.0	21.2	15.5	8.1	2.2	1.5	135
Whole Group	4.1	15.7	20.0	26.4	16.6	9.8	6.8	2416

NOTE: For meaning of letters designating crime groups, see text. "Reg." means regular or ordinary prisoners; "Bat." means disciplinary battalion, a selected group of men held under discipline, but with an expectation of early restoration to the ranks of the army.

As might be expected, the prisoners assigned to the disciplinary battalion rate somewhat higher than the other prisoners. This superiority is rather slight, however, and in most cases seems chiefly due to the fact that fewer D and E men get into the battalion.

Men sentenced for acquisitive crimes made scores considerably above the average, and better than most of the other groups. These men form the largest group outside those sentenced for purely military crimes.

The group of men committed for crimes of personal violence is somewhat below the average, and is peculiar in that it has few E and A men. This, however, may be an accident due to the small number of cases.

Only 21 sex offenders were found in this study. The peculiar fact shown by these few cases is that nearly two thirds of these made the C grades.

The men who committed purely military offenses stand a little below the group average. This is more marked in the case of the men who were convicted of the aggressive military crimes. Among the men whose aggressiveness amounted to disloyalty there seem to be two groups, one composed of very low grade and the other of high grade men. Here again, however, the numbers are so small as to make definite conclusions impossible.

Conscientious objectors of the religious and political types are high grade men very distinctly above the other groups. This superiority is especially noticeable in the case of the political objectors.

The men classed as conscientious objectors because of being alien enemies, having alien enemy relatives, etc., (Q group) are decidedly low in intelligence. This seems to be one group in the institution whose troubles may be ascribed to low mentality. The men in this group were largely foreign born, many could speak or understand very little English, and a large proportion of them were illiterate.

A supplementary study was made of the conscientious objectors who have continually and consistently refused to do any work either before they came to the institution or afterwards. Of these, six refused to take any examination. The records of the others are given in Table VIII. The superiority of these men as a group to any other group in the institution is very apparent.

TABLE VIII. PERCENTAGE TABLE OF INTELLIGENCE RATINGS OF CONSCIENTIOUS OBJECTORS IN ISOLATION AT LEAVENWORTH.

	D-, E	D	C-	C	C+	B	A	Total
Religious	5.0	5.0	20.0	20.0	15.0	25.0	10.0	20
Political	--	11.7	11.7	0	11.7	5.9	59.0	17
Total	2.7	6.3	16.4	10.8	13.5	16.4	32.6	37

Data for the study of recidivism among the military prisoners at Leavenworth were made available through the records obtained in a psychiatric survey which took place at the same time as the mental testing. Part of the information asked of the men when they were interviewed was a record of previous difficulties in civil life. Since this information was obtained from the prisoners alone, and was not substantiated by later investigation, it is not altogether trustworthy. It seemed to be the general belief among the men who did the interviewing, however, that the prisoners were for the most part truthful



in their reports. Another source of error in these figures lies in the fact that some of the worst cases were either in isolation or solitary confinement, and so could not be examined by either the psychologists or the psychiatrists. It is more than likely that some of the most persistent recidivists were in this group.

On the basis of the information obtained from the prisoners, they were classed into what may be called, for want of a better term, recidivist groups. These groups were as follows: (1) Men reporting no previous criminal history; (2) Men who have been found guilty, in civil life, of minor delinquencies, such as drunkenness, disorderly conduct, violations of traffic regulations, etc., and who had been punished by fines or by short sentences in jails, workhouses, and such institutions; (3) Men who had been sentenced to reformatories; and (4) men who had served time in prisons or penitentiaries for serious offenses. In case a man's record was such that he would fall in two or more of the above groups, he was classified for the purposes of this study according to his worst offense.

It became apparent early in the study that the results were affected by the inclusion of the records of the religious and political prisoners. Because of this fact Table IX was prepared in which the records of the ordinary prisoners were separated from those of the conscientious objectors. An examination of this table shows that very few of the objectors got into trouble before they came into the army. It may be noted in passing that possibly these previous difficulties were also the result of political or religious activities. Of the prisoners not objectors 60 per cent report clean records in civil life. Of the remaining 40 per cent about three-quarters were guilty of minor offenses only, and only three per cent of the whole group had prison records.

TABLE IX. PERCENTAGE COMPARISON OF PREVIOUS CRIMINAL RECORDS OF CONSCIENTIOUS OBJECTORS AND NON-OBJECTORS.

	Non-objectors	Objectors	Combined group
No criminal history	60.0	93.5	65.7
Minor delinquencies	29.4	5.9	25.3
Reformatory	7.3	0.6	6.5
Prison or penitentiary	3.2	0	2.7
Number of cases	2320	473	2795

Table X shows the distribution by recidivist group of the men making each intelligence rating. It is easily seen that the A men

and the E men have had fewer difficulties than the others, for among the A men 82.1 per cent and among the E men 78.9 per cent admit of no previous criminal history. It is noticeable, however, that a fair number of the E men did get into minor difficulties in civil life. It is hard to choose among the men making the other intelligence ratings one group which contains a significantly greater percentage of repeated offenders.

TABLE X. PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION BY RECIDIVIST GROUP OF ALL LEAVENWORTH PRISONERS MAKING EACH INTELLIGENCE RATING.

	E, D-	D	C-	C	C	B	A	Whole Group
No Criminal history	78.9	60.4	60.1	65.6	69.3	61.7	82.1	65.7
Minor delinquencies	20.4	29.2	31.1	23.1	22.2	26.6	12.0	25.3
Reformatory	0.8	5.1	6.3	8.3	6.6	8.3	4.1	6.5
Prison or penitentiary	0	3.6	2.3	3.2	1.9	3.4	1.2	2.7
Number of cases	132	529	556	703	455	261	167	2795

In Table XI the facts are presented in another way. This table shows the percentages of men making various intelligence ratings in each recidivist group. These figures show that the men admitting no criminal history have comparatively more A's and E's than do the men in the other groups. There are no E men and only 2.7 per cent A men among the prison and penitentiary cases.

There are two important conclusions which may be drawn from the foregoing figures on recidivism. First, probably not more than half of the military prisoners were men who got into difficulties in civil life, and these difficulties were mostly of a minor sort. Second, men of very high and very low intelligence seem less likely to become delinquent in civil life than other men.

The reason for seeking the aid of the army psychologist with the disciplinary cases was primarily to get an answer to the question, "Is this man of such mentality that he can be held responsible for his misdemeanors?" It is very hard to answer this question definitely if we leave out the other important factors, such as pathological nervous conditions, heredity, training, and like influences, and try to decide on the basis of mental age alone. It was not the policy of the Psychological Service to reject all men below a certain mental age and accept for service all men above it. While it was true, as

has been shown in this study, that the percentage of low mental ages was large among certain classes of military offenders, it is also true that many of the low grade of men get along reasonably well. It may be said, however, that most of the men rated E should not be held responsible. This statement is supported by the actions of the men themselves. They got into trouble frequently, and did not seem to profit by discipline. Their offenses were usually of the sort committed through the lack of judgment rather than through deliberate malice. On the other hand, the frequency with which the men of average and better than average intelligence become offenders indicates that low mentality is only one of a number of factors which lead to military delinquency. It is possible that the emotional side man's nature is more important in this connection than is his intellectuality. For the group of military offenders as a whole then, the measurement of intelligence cannot go far in solving the problem. The best it can do is to designate some few low grade men who cannot be held responsible to any practical degree under the military system.

TABLE XI. PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF INTELLIGENCE RATINGS OF ALL LEAVENWORTH PRISONERS IN EACH RECIDIVIST GROUP.

	E, D-	D	C-	C	C-	B	A	No. Cases
No Criminal history	5.7	17.4	18.3	25.1	17.2	8.8	7.6	1831
Minor delinquencies	3.8	21.7	24.4	23.1	14.3	9.7	2.8	707
Reformatory	0.6	16.7	21.6	36.6	18.5	13.6	4.5	182
Prison or penitentiary	0	25.4	17.4	30.6	12.0	12.0	2.7	75
Whole group	4.7	19.0	19.9	25.1	16.2	9.2	6.7	2795



# A NOTE ON THE SIGNIFICANCE OF NOCTURNAL ENURESIS WITH REFERENCE TO INTELLIGENCE AND DELINQUENCY

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Just at present the attempt to connect up delinquency with the physical characteristics of the individual is out of fashion, especially with reference to the so-called stigmata of degeneracy. The work of Goring, who was unable to find such a connection in the case of the stigmata which he investigated, is perhaps of special significance with regard to this state of affairs<sup>1</sup>. His findings can be summed up in his own words as follows: "The physical and mental constitution of both criminal and law-abiding persons of the same age, stature, class, and intelligence, are identical". And yet this cannot be the final word. Suppose it is true that the delinquent does not differ in any way from the non-delinquents in the class to which he belongs in other respects, it does not follow that some of these classes do not furnish a disproportionate share of delinquents, thus establishing a relation between delinquency and the characteristics peculiar to this group. Further, Goring, like every one else, does find a relation between intelligence and delinquency. And he holds that the *criminal diathesis* is the important element in the make-up of the typical criminal. Now no matter how *functional* or *mental* intelligence and criminal diathesis may be, they are not discarnate. Wherever there is motion there must be something that moves; wherever there is function there must be something that functions; and wherever there are functional differences there must be somewhere a structural counterpart. Indeed, so far as intelligence is concerned, we have ample evidence showing the truth of such generalization. And, if there is such a thing as a criminal diathesis, analogous evidence will some day be forthcoming.

Neither can we identify the criminal diathesis with intelligence if we retain a modicum of intelligence for personal use. Of course if we define intelligence as the ability to adapt to the environment, why then delinquency, if detected, is an intellectual failure because

<sup>1</sup> Goring, *The English Convict*.

2. *ibid.* p. 370.

it is a failure to adapt successfully. But modern science has ceased to find explanatory value in the logic of subsumption. In order to reach genetic and evolutionary insight into delinquency, there is needed first of all knowledge of what is peculiar to the delinquent, rather than what he has in common with the members of the group to which he otherwise belongs.

It is the presupposition of the writer that there *is* a criminal diathesis. He believes its basis to lie in individual differences of instinctive equipment which are, as yet, but vaguely understood. For example, if an individual from an early age enjoys cries of pain and distress of others which affect most children unpleasantly even before they know their meaning, I believe that we would have *some* basis for the development of a criminal diathesis.

It was in the hope of finding a stigma having some connection with differences of this general character that the present study was undertaken. Nocturnal enuresis was selected partly on account of the suggestion from numerous sources that it is symptomatic of the neuropathic diathesis<sup>3</sup>. Further, my general impression was that the findings would be positive. And last, but unfortunately not least, the data were available.

In reporting the results of this little study I have deemed it expedient to omit from the text most of the discussion which has to do with the validity of the procedure rather than with the significance of the results. Brief indications of the statistical methods used and other similar discussion will be found in two subsidiary notes of the nature of an appendix.

The figures to be submitted are the result of the study of 583 children. Of these 498 were patients of the Juvenile Psychopathic Institute, Chicago, and 85 are the children of parents one or more of whose children attend the University of Chicago elementary school. The latter we shall call "normal". Nocturnal enuresis was considered a symptom if it occurred at or after six years of age.

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3. A. Adler, *The Theory of Organ-Inferiority and its Psychical Compensation*.

4. Questionnaires were sent to 300 parents. Only 50 replied, giving data on 85 children. The sample therefore is highly selected. The writer is inclined to think that complete returns would yield lower figures, because parents with enuretic children would more likely have been interested in the carefully worded questionnaire. On the other hand it is also possible that they might have become incensed at even the faintest imputation of inferiority to their children, and have failed to reply on that account.



In all other cases it was regarded as absent. If the symptom was affirmed either by the patient or another informant it was regarded as present; if explicitly denied by either the patient or another informant and not affirmed by anyone it was regarded as absent; in the rare cases of conflicting testimony the special circumstances having a bearing on the validity of the testimony were taken into account; if the symptom was not mentioned, it was scored "unknown". The 498 patients comprise all of the cases between 6 and 20 years of age classified as feeble-minded or borderline cases which had been examined at the time the work began. The findings are shown in Table I.

TABLE I. CLASSIFICATION OF PATIENTS.

	Enuretic	Not Enuretic	Unknown	Total
Feeble-minded	94	159	72	325
Borderline	32	112	29	173
Normal	10	75	--	85

In view of the large proportion of the "unknown", it seemed advisable to compute the per cent of those exhibiting the symptom not only on the basis of the number of cases where the symptom is either present or absent, but also on the basis of the total number of cases. The latter value may be regarded as a limiting value below which the proportion cannot possibly fall (in the present sample). When the "unknowns" are omitted, the proportions are shown in Table II. Tabulating the amounts of difference between the proportions shown by the various groups, the probable errors of these differences, and the ratios of the differences to their probable errors,

TABLE II. PROPORTION OF ENURETICS. "UNKNOWN" OMITTED.

	Per cent Enuretic	Probable Error
Feeble-minded	37.2	2.05
Borderline	22.2	2.34
Normal	11.8	2.36

Note: I have been able to accumulate some further data on the incidence of enuresis amongst normals and have succeeded in obtaining a much greater proportion of replies to my questionnaires. Eleven cases out of 136, or 8 per cent, were enuretic after 6 years of age, so that there would be quite a strong case even for the borderline cases. These data also indicate that the greater the proportion of replies to questionnaires, the lower the incidence of enuresis shown, so that there is reason to believe that the true proportion is even lower than 8 per cent.



we have: (Table III.) We see that the incidence of enuresis differentiates the feeble-minded from the normal in clear-cut fashion; there is a strong probability that the difference between the feeble-minded and the borderline cases is significant; and there is a fair probability that the same thing is true of the difference between the borderline and the normal.

TABLE III. VALIDITY OF DIFFERENCES.

	Difference	Pro. Error	Difference Pro. Error
F.M. & Normal	25.4 pc.	3.13	8.12
F.M. & Border	15.0 pc.	3.11	4.82
Border & Normal	10.4 pc.	3.32	3.13

Read the first horizontal line as follows: The difference between the proportion of enuretics occurring among the feeble-minded and the normal respectively is 25.4 per cent. The probable error of this difference is 3.13 per cent. The difference is 8.12 times as great its probable error.

When the "unknown" are included, the proportions which result are as shown in Table IV.

TABLE IV. PROPORTION OF ENURETICS. "UNKNOWN" INCLUDED.

	Per cent Enuretic	Probable Error
Feeble-minded	28.9	1.70
Borderline	18.5	1.99
Normal	11.8	2.36

TABLE V.

	Difference	Pro. Error	Difference Pro. Error
F. M. & Normal	17.1	2.91	5.88
F. M. Border	10.4	2.62	3.97
Border & Normal	6.7	3.09	2.17

And the validity of these differences is shown by Table V. Considering that these values are limiting values, there seems to be no occasion to modify the conclusions arrived at on the basis of tables II and III.

In order to throw further light on the relation of enuresis to mental defect, the relation of enuresis to the intelligence quotients of our cases was studied. The 101 cases without either positive or negative information about enuresis were omitted from further consideration, as were 37 other cases who had not been given complete Binet examinations so that an intelligence quotient could not be computed. For the 360 remaining cases, the coefficient of correlation between enuresis and the intelligence quotient was found to be  $-0.33$ . The exact probable error of this coefficient cannot be determin-

ed at present, as the formula for computing it is not yet known, but it is less than 0.06, so that there can be little doubt about the validity of the relation. But when this relation is studied more in detail, it is seen to be as in Table VI. It will be seen that the incidence of

TABLE VI.

Intelligence Quotient	0-	40-	50-	60-	70-	80-	90-100
Number of cases	30	20	38	77	128	53	14
Per cent enuretic	63	60	40	31	23	24	36

The first column reads: of 30 cases whose intelligence quotients are between 0 and 40, 63 per cent are enuretic.

enuresis decreases until we reach an intelligence quotient of about .75, and then increases again. The proportion of enuretics between .90 and 1.00 is as great as between .50 and .60. Now, if we remember that the cases between .90 and 1.00 were found to be defective not because of the psychological rating, but in spite of it, and that there are a great many people with intelligence quotients between .90 and 1.00, but that very few of them are brought to psychopathic clinics, this increase after we reach the higher "mental" levels seems to be suggestive. It would in fact seem to indicate that enuresis is associated with some important characteristic of the mentally defective, or of some subdivision of the mentally defective, other than psychological tests. Or, to state the thing in terms of correlation, the correlation of enuresis with mental defect is independent of its correlation with psychological tests<sup>5</sup>.

It would, of course, be of considerable interest to learn something more definite about this characteristic or tendency of which enuresis is symptomatic. Accordingly I investigated the relation of enuresis to delinquency in this same group. The patient was considered delinquent if he had been guilty of persistent theft, of burglary, truancy, persistent lying, masturbation (if accompanied by the tendency of teaching others this practice,) sex perversion, illegal coitus, and other serious forms of legally punishable delinquency. In fact the patient was considered non-delinquent only if the absence of all forms of misconduct was specifically affirmed by a well informed and apparently truthful informant, or if the nature of the misconduct was ill-defined and apparently trivial. The informant might say, for example, that the child was disobedient and hard to manage, but,

5. I am assured both by Dr. S. N. Clark, psychiatrist of the Institute, and by Mr. H. L. Harley, the psychologist, that enuresis was given no weight whatever in arriving at a diagnosis of mental defect.



when pressed for particulars, only such details as being late for meals or frequent failure to perform some household task could be elicited.

Obviously, it would have been better to study separately the various forms of delinquency. But, with the number of cases at my disposal, that did not seem feasible. It would also have been better to use some quantitative measure of delinquency, such as the age of onset and the persistency of the delinquent conduct. But here again the necessary information was lacking in so many cases that the total number would have been too seriously reduced. As we have seen, the 498 cases with which we started were reduced to 397 by the rejection of cases having no information about enuresis; 37 others were rejected on account of the incompleteness or lack of the psychological examination, reducing our number to 360. Further, in 82 cases referred mainly for psychological examination it was impossible to determine whether they would classify as delinquent or non-delinquent, there being no information whatever about their conduct. That left 278 cases. Further subclassification would have left me with no samples at all.

It may occur to the reader that the rejection of cases lacking only one item of information is a wanton waste of usable knowledge. Thus, of the cases lacking information about delinquency, many had complete psychological examinations, and *vice versa*. The coefficient of correlation for any two characteristics might be determined on the basis of all the cases exhibiting these characteristics, regardless of the fact whether or no they also exhibit a third or fourth characteristic to be taken into account later on. But a single relation found to exist in a group so highly selected as are the patients of a psychopathic institute is of very little value, as we shall see presently, unless other factors are taken into account. And, if the influence of other factors is to be ascertained quantitatively, the measures of the interrelations of the various factors must be consistent with each other. Otherwise chance fluctuations of sampling are likely to produce erroneous results without any measure of the possible extent of the error. To proceed in this way would be somewhat analogous to ascertaining the relation of enuresis to intelligence in a group of the feeble-minded, the relation of enuresis to delinquency in a group of the insane, and the relation of delinquency to intelligence in a group of public school children, and deducing from such data the relations supposed to exist in a group formed by combining



all these cases into a single group. The results would be meaningless. The exclusion of such possible sources of inconsistency does not, of course, reduce the probability of fluctuations of sampling, but it does leave us the possibility of ascertaining the probable amount of such error.

For these 278 cases the coefficient of correlation of enuresis and delinquency was found to be  $-0.27$  with a probable error of  $0.062$ . In other words, enuretic feeble-minded children are less likely to be delinquent than non-enuretic feeble-minded children.

This result was contrary to what my non-systematic studies had led me to expect. Not only had I formed the general impression that, other things being equal, enuretics were more likely to exhibit the instability of mental make-up which often goes with juvenile delinquency, but of a group of 42 children none of whom were feeble-minded and 40 of whom were delinquent, 14 children, or 33 per cent, were enuretics. This group of children was thought to be characterized by the absence of secondary interests normal to children of their age, and this condition was thought to be due to innate defect of some kind<sup>6</sup>. Considerations of this sort led me to cast about for some further explanations of the findings.

The following considerations would seem to be pertinent in this connection: (1) The incidence of enuresis is greatest among the defectives of very low grade, and very few idiots are delinquent. The negative correlation found may be due exclusively to this fact. (2) Patients of relatively higher mentality are more likely to be referred for psychiatric examination on account of conduct difficulties than on account of retardation at school. Therefore, for the patients of this Institute, there is likely to be a positive relation between intelligence and delinquency; in other words, intelligent patients are more likely to be delinquent than unintelligent patients. Now inasmuch as enuresis is related negatively to intelligence, its negative relation to delinquency may be due entirely to the positive relation of intelligence to delinquency. In other words, the negative relation of enuresis to delinquency may be an artefact peculiar to the patients of this Institute and having no counterpart in the population at large. (3) It seems probable that there is a positive relation between chronological age and delinquency up to the age of puberty at any rate, and probably beyond. On the

6. "The Criteria of Defective Mental Development", S. N. Clark, *Jour. of Psycho-Asthenics*, Vol. 22, No. 2, 1917.

other hand it seems quite likely that the denial of enuresis after six years of age is more likely to be true to the facts while these facts are fresh in the memory of the informant than years afterwards. If so, there would be created an artificial appearance of a negative relation of enuresis to delinquency where none existed in fact. (4) 155 of our 278 cases were examined with the 1911 revision of the Binet scale, and 123 with the Stanford revision<sup>7</sup>. Children who on account of their general appearance and behavior created the impression in the mind of the examiner that they were very probably defective were examined with the 1911 scale, the others with the Stanford. Now when these two groups were studied separately, it was found that the coefficient of correlation of enuresis and delinquency was  $-0.44$  (with a probable error of 0.076) for the "Binet" group, and  $-0.06$  (with a probable error of 0.098) for the Stanford group. That is, the negative correlation observed is almost exclusively due to a group which creates the impression of mental defect in the mind of the expert even on superficial acquaintance. Unfortunately the psychological examiners found it impossible to generalize the large number of factors upon which their impressions were based, so that no very definite conclusions can be drawn. Besides, the cases in question were examined by three different examiners. Also, the mode of selection described above was a general tendency rather than a rigid rule, and at present all cases are examined with the Stanford scale whenever time permits. Nevertheless it may be worthy of note that cases of primary amentia<sup>8</sup>, are more likely to exhibit the so-called stigmata of degeneracy and are usually less prepossessing in appearance than cases of secondary amentia, whereas secondary aments are less likely to respond to training and are therefore more likely to be delinquent. (As a matter of fact, the proportion of delinquents in the Stanford group is 56.1 per cent as against 42.6 per cent in the Binet group). It seems, at any rate, that the negative relation of enuresis and delinquency is due to the association of enuresis with certain characteristics peculiar to the Binet group.

It will be seen that so far as the first three points are concerned, the suggestion is that negative relation observed is an artefact caused

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7. See Note I.

8. Tredgold, *Mental Deficiency*.



by the peculiar and highly selected nature of our sample. But the possibilities suggested can be investigated and, if the facts are found to correspond with the suggestions, the artificial tendencies observed can be corrected. And, by correcting for some of the peculiarities of our group, we will be getting that much nearer to the true relation as it exists in the population at large. In other words, we will be overcoming, in part, the limitations imposed on us by the highly selected nature of our sample. The fourth point, on the other hand, is vague and indefinite, and not easily dealt with. It seems to point, rather, to further research, and, in particular, to the careful comparison of the two groups which chance has separated out for us, in order that some basis for further statistical investigation may be obtained. The writer has not as yet had an opportunity to make this investigation but hopes to do so in the near future. The remainder of this paper will be devoted to the consideration of the other three points.

The factors to be considered are Enuresis, Delinquency, the Intelligence Quotient, and Chronological Age. In Table VII, column I,

TABLE VII.

	<i>All Cases</i>	<i>Binet</i>	<i>Stanford</i>	<i>I. Q. above .70 and between 10 &amp; 17 years.</i>
Enu- Del	-0.27 $\pm$ 0.062	-0.44 $\pm$ 0.076	-0.06 $\pm$ 0.098	-0.14 $\pm$ 0.115
Enu-I. Q.	-0.36 $\pm$ (> 0.060)	-0.45 $\pm$ (> 0.075)	-0.22 $\pm$ (> 0.085)	0.10 $\pm$ (> 0.115)
Enu-Age	-0.17 $\pm$ (> 0.065)	-0.31 $\pm$ (> 0.080)	0.02 $\pm$ (> 0.100)	0.07 $\pm$ (> 0.120)
Del-I. Q.	0.37 $\pm$ (> 0.060)	0.43 $\pm$ (> 0.075)	0.24 $\pm$ (> 0.85 )	0.07 $\pm$ (> 0.120)
Del-Age	0.14 $\pm$ (> 0.065)	0.36 $\pm$ (> 0.080)	0.02 $\pm$ (> 0.100)	-0.11 $\pm$ (> 0.115)
I. Q.-Age	0.16 $\pm$ 0.039	0.37 $\pm$ 0.047	-0.10 $\pm$ 0.060	-0.18 $\pm$ 0.065

will be found the coefficients of all possible interrelations existing between these four factors for our group of 278 children. In column II there are the same coefficients for the Binet group. Column III shows these relations for the Stanford group, and column IV for a group of 102 children formed by omitting all cases having intelligence quotients below .70 and chronological ages below 10 and above 17. Wherever possible, the probable errors are given. Where that is impossible, the probable error is estimated, in parentheses, as less than an estimated amount.

In column I we see our suspicion confirmed that, in this group, delinquency is related positively to both intelligence and chronological age. The same facts are well marked for both intelligence and

9. See Note II.



age for the Binet group, but only for intelligence for the Stanford group. In column IV the effect of everything peculiar to the low grade feeble-minded is eliminated completely, and the selection which is responsible for the fact that delinquents predominate in the higher intelligence levels is discounted in part. That it is not discounted completely is shown by the fact that the relation of intelligence to delinquency, while very slight, is still positive, whereas we know that it is markedly negative in the population at large<sup>10</sup>. With the elimination of these factors we see that the correlation of enuresis to delinquency changes from  $-0.27$  to  $-0.14$ , and the correlation of enuresis to the intelligence quotient from  $-0.36$  to  $-0.10$ . The magnitude of both relations is thus reduced to about the magnitude of their probable errors, and they lose all significance. It is however worthy of note that the enuresis-delinquency relation remains negative and that the difference between groups I and IV is only  $0.13$ , a difference which, by inspection, seems just about as great as the probable error of the difference, whereas the enuresis-intelligence relation becomes positive and changes  $0.46$  points, a change about four times as great as its probable error. It is only with reference to this latter relation that we can feel reasonably sure that there is a real difference between the two groups. At any rate, so far as these figures go, they seem to indicate that there is not a real relation of enuresis with either intelligence, as measured by tests, or with delinquency. The other coefficients in Table VII, though they may have some interest of their own, were computed only because they are needed in subsequent computations and need not be discussed now.

The foregoing analysis has been accomplished by omitting, roughly, two thirds of our 278 cases from consideration. But that is neither the only, nor necessarily the best method of analyzing out the influence of certain relations, such as the enuresis-intelligence relation, upon other relations, such as the enuresis-delinquency relation. Indeed, if all the "regressions" of Table VII were "rectilinear", the omission of all I.Q.'s below  $.70$  would not have changed any of our coefficients of correlation, even though, for example, the relation of enuresis to delinquency were entirely due to its relation to test-intelligence. That all the relations in column I are changed by the omission of these cases indicates rather that some or all of these relations are not rectilinear, and that some or all of these factors,

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10. Goring, *The English Convict*.

such as test-intelligence or enuresis, mean different things in the two groups.

Another way of making an analysis of the kind indicated is by means of partial correlation. In the case of rectilinear regressions, it gives us the relation which exists between two variables, other things being equal. It would give us, for example, the relation which would be found to exist between enuresis and delinquency if due allowance were made in each and every individual case for differences in psychological rating and chronological age. In the case of non-linear regressions, such as we seem to have to deal with<sup>11</sup>, it does the same thing for us to a lesser degree of approximation. In other words, the allowance made for the effect of intelligence and chronological age is only partial; the elimination of these factors is incomplete.

In Table VIII we find the results of the application of partial correlation to the enuresis-delinquency relation and to the enuresis-intelligence relation for each of the four groups of Table VII. In column

TABLE VIII.

	I	II	III	IV
	ED	ED. IA	EI	EI. DA
Group I	-0.27	-0.15	-0.36	-0.28
Group II	-0.44	-0.28	-0.45	-0.35
Group III	-0.06	-0.01	-0.22	-0.21
Group IV	-0.14	-0.14	0.10	0.12

I there are the enuresis-delinquency relations as they actually exist in each of the four groups. In column II the same relation is shown with the effect of test-intelligence and of age eliminated. Column III shows the actual enuresis-intelligence relations, and in column IV the influence of delinquency and age is eliminated.

Inspection of the table shows that none of the changes brought about by this elimination are likely to be of statistical significance if it were possible to compute the probable errors. In strictness therefore the results are not worthy of discussion. If however, in view of the fact that elimination is incomplete, we waive this consideration, we see that the only considerable changes take place in group II (the "Binet" group), or are clearly due to the inclusion of group II in group I. In group IV practically no change at all takes place. And inasmuch as group II, and group I which includes group II, are the only groups exhibiting clearly marked relations of enuresis to

<sup>11</sup>. Formal tests for linearity were not applied.



test-intelligence or to delinquency, we are led to a confirmation of the results which we reached previously by another route, viz. that enuresis is *not* significantly related to either intelligence or delinquency except when the low grade feeble-minded are taken into account. It would seem to follow that enuresis is a form of incoordination which operates only on a vegetative level and does not enter significantly into the complex social relations which we sum up under the headings of intelligence and delinquency.

The writer is far from being convinced that this first inadequate attempt of his to find the meaning of enuresis is in any way final even for the present findings. Rather does he think that the data in the first few pages of this paper state a problem which is solved very incompletely afterwards. But even if these findings be confirmed and it should turn out that enuresis has no real relation to psychological rating or to delinquency, it surely is related to *some* of the facts of human behavior, and this problem can never be solved with a negative answer. As information accumulates at this Institute, I hope to return to the problem and be enabled to do away with some of the technical and other inadequacies from which the present study suffers. There is need of (1) a greater number of cases; (2) more accurate information about the normal incidence of enuresis; (3) the inclusion of other types besides the mentally defective; (4) the doing away with the ambiguity incident to the use of two systems of psychological tests about the equivalence of which no accurate information is available; (5) a closer definition of both delinquency and enuresis, i.e. delinquency to be defined in terms of age of onset and persistency for the different kinds of delinquency, and, in the case of enuresis, the division of before and after 6 years to be replaced by the age up to which it actually continued; (6) the analytical consideration of other factors besides the ones studied in the present paper.

With reference to the last point, I may say that it is my impression that enuresis is positively related to what is commonly called "instability" or "lack of equilibrium". Now if we attempt to go beyond the mere impressionistic description which these phrases convey, if we ask,—lack of equilibrium of what?—the most intelligible answer would seem to be, *lack of balance of primary or secondary instinctive tendencies*. If the reactions of the individual are of a character which facilitates normal social intercourse, the individual will find opportunity to express these tendencies in normal ways, he will acquire



normal social interests, and will be called well-balanced. On the other hand, failure to acquire such interests leaves the individual without strong interests which can find satisfaction in a civilized environment and, without the "balance" which such interests give, his conduct is bound to be impulsive and likely to result in social maladjustment<sup>12</sup>. But, if the impulses which lack "balance" in the sense indicated are relatively weak, the individual is indeed likely to be unsuccessful and dissatisfied, but the constraints which society imposes on all of us are likely to be sufficient to keep him from overt and persistent delinquency, whereas if the dissatisfied impulses are strong, they are likely to find satisfaction in a social and extra-legal fashion. It was in the hope of finding in enuresis a symptom of "instability" that the present study was undertaken. What seems to be needed in addition is some measure of the dynamic energy of impulses, and that is difficult to find. Of course, strength of impulse will manifest itself in the persistency of the efforts at satisfaction and in the violence of the reaction when the impulse is thwarted. But to those familiar with data of this kind, the difficulty of converting such general requirements into data sufficiently concrete and specific for statistical use will be apparent. The attempt however can and will be made.

I do not hope that all of the requirements outlined above can be satisfied in the near future. Some of them will be, in some degree at least, and when they are, I hope to return to the problem. The positive case, as it stands at present, is that, for intelligence quotients above .70, there is little evidence showing enuresis to be related either to psychological rating or to delinquency, as measured solely by its occurrence.

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NOTE I.

The intelligence quotients of the Stanford group were of course calculated in the usual way. For the Binet group the procedure was as follows: For children less than 10 years old the intelligence quotient is, as usual, the mental age divided by the chronological age. Altho the figure thus arrived at is probably not strictly equivalent to the Stanford intelligence quotient, there are no direct comparisons of these two scales known to me, and it is probably better to use the actual figures than to make corrections of dubious value. Above 10 years however it becomes absolutely necessary to make a correction. As has been pointed out fre-

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12. Singer, *Dynamic Psychology and the Practice of Medicine*.

quently, Binet's official directions for computing mental ages fail to take account of the fact that there are only 10 tests in a five year interval and gives each of these tests a value of 1-5 year only, whereas each of the 5 twelve year tests should, logically, have a value of 2-5, and each of the 5 fifteen year old tests a value of 3-5 of a year. Consequently an individual may pass all of the tests up to 10 years, inclusive, all of the 12 year tests except one, all of the 15 year tests except one, and have a mental age of only 11 3-5 years, but by passing only two additional tests he will reach a mental age of 15 years. In order to make some correction for this condition of affairs, it was assumed that the "average adult" would reach a mental age of 12 3-5 years by the 1911 scale. Adulthood was taken to be equal to 15 years, and a proportionate allowance was made for ages intermediate between 10 and 15 years. The justification for this procedure (such as it is) is as follows: S. C. Kohs<sup>13</sup> gave the Vineland revision of the Binet scale to 116 "normal" patients of the House of Correction, except that only 2 of the 4 tests at 15 years were given. Their average score was 11 3-5 years. Allowing for the differences between the Vineland scale and the 1911 scale, and making some allowance for the probable inferiority of Kohs' "normals", I arrived at a probable equivalent of 12 3-5 for the 1911 scale. No other basis for comparison is known to me. I have no defense for this rough and ready procedure. The choice I had was either to make some such correction, or to drop the work, and it is partly for this reason that separate figures are given for the Binet group where-ever possible. It is of some interest to note that the increase in the incidence of enuresis at the higher mental levels occurs in the same fashion in the Binet group and in the Stanford group. The figures follow:

Intelligence Quotient	0-	40-	50-	60-	70-	80-	90-100
Number of cases, Binet	21	8	20	40	84	22	6
Per cent enuretic	71	50	33	25	27	9	50
Number of cases, Stanford	9	12	18	37	44	31	8
Per cent enuretic	44	67	50	38	16	35	25

## NOTE II.

The points discussed in this note have to do with issues which are, in some sense, debatable, so that some justification seems needed for the method actually chosen. No other points are discussed, and there is no attempt to teach statistics to those not familiar with the subject.

It was necessary to use three different methods in order to find the coefficients of correlation of Table VII. In the case of the intelligence-chronological age relation both variables vary continuously. The formula used here is that of the familiar "product-moment" coefficient of Pearson. No special reference is needed to justify its use, and the formula for its probable error, as well as the fact that the probable error so found is strictly correct only in the case of normal correlation, is equally well known. The only pre-supposition on which the formula for the product-moment coefficient is based is that of rectilinear regression. The linearity of this particular regression was not investigated by me, because it did not seem worth while. For interpreting the significance of this coefficient in cases of non-

<sup>13</sup> The Practicability of the Binet Scale and the Question of the Borderline Case. Publications of the Research Dep't., Chicago House of Correction, Bull. No. 3, Psychopathic Dep't. Series No. 2.



linear regression the reader is referred to my discussion of this point in a previous paper<sup>14</sup>.

In the case of the enuresis-delinquency relation, our two variables are classified in alternate categories, that is, each individual is classed as delinquent or non-delinquent, as enuretic or non-enuretic. Doubtless, the underlying causes of delinquency and enuresis vary continuously from individual to individual, but the continuous measures of this condition are not at our disposal. Many indices have been proposed as measures of relation under such circumstances. But, while all of them are zero in the absence of association, and most of them vary between the limits of 1 and -1, they do not, unfortunately, yield identical values for identical data in the case of the intermediate values. It is therefore necessary to indicate the index actually used, in this instance Pearson's tetrachoric coefficient of correlation<sup>15</sup>. This index was chosen because it alone is strictly analogous to the product-moment coefficient, (and that only when the presuppositions underlying its derivation are satisfied), and is therefore the only index from which it is possible to derive an equation depicting the relation as it really exists. It is the only index having direct equivalents in physical reality. Also it is the only index which lends itself to further analysis by means of partial correlation<sup>16</sup>. The presuppositions of this coefficient are linear regression and normal distribution of both variables. Of course, the distribution of the variables cannot be investigated in the case of a dichotomous classification, but it is quite certain that enuresis would not be distributed normally if its incidence were plotted according to the ages at which it actually stopped. But, if we had such data, we would not use the tetrachoric coefficient, and for the data we do have, we have to assume only that the fact of enuresis before or after 6 years is determined by *some cause* which is distributed normally, a presupposition which is not at all unlikely. What we are measuring in such a case is the correlation between the underlying causes, or sets of causes, of the phenomena.

Finally, in the case of the other four correlations, of which the enuresis-intelligence relation may serve as a type, one of the variables, enuresis, is classed in alternate categories, and the other, the intelligence quotient, varies continuously. A singularly rapid method of finding the coefficient of correlation in this special case has been discovered by Pearson<sup>17</sup>. The coefficient, which has no special name, is strictly analogous to the product-moment and to the tetrachoric coefficient. It presupposes rectilinear regression and normal distribution of the variable expressed in alternate categories. Its probable error has not as yet been determined, but it is sure to be less than that of the tetrachoric coefficient, and greater than that of the product-moment coefficient, thus making a rough estimate possible. It is these estimates which are in parentheses in Table VII.

14. Psychological Review Monographs, Vol. XXIV, No. 6, p. 14.

15. Phil. Trans. A. Vol. 195 pp. 1-47.

16. For discussion of these points the reader is referred to Yule, "On the Methods of Measuring Association between two Attributes", Jour. Stat. Soc., 1911-1912, pp. 579-642, and to Pearson and Heron, "On Theories of Association", Biom. Vol. IX, 1913, pp. 159-332. Convenient tables and directions for the computation of tetrachoric "r" and of its probable error will be found in "Tables for Statisticians and Biometricians", Cambridge University Press.

17. Biom. Vol. VII, p. 96.



# The Journal of Delinquency

Published bi-monthly by Whittier State School

WHITTIER, CALIFORNIA

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Entered as second-class matter March 27, 1916 at the Post Office at Whittier, California, under the Act of August 24, 1912. Acceptance for mailing at special rate of postage provided for in Section 1103, Act of October 3, 1917, authorized August 3, 1918.

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Vol. V

March, 1920

No. 2

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## QUOTATIONS

### NATIONAL INSTITUTION FOR MORAL INSTRUCTION

Confidence in the ability of this Institution to render a service to American education should be enhanced by the following information:

(1) Mr. and Mrs. Milton Fairchild have made identical wills by which property to the amount of about \$90,000 will come to the trustee of the Institution after their death, as the beginning of an endowment. This first bequest to the endowment funds should be credited to Mrs. Fairchild, since it is her estate, and she designates that it be devoted to this purpose. The will which Mr. Fairchild has drawn is merely a supplement to her will, to insure the carrying out of her purpose.

(2) The Donor has informed the Chairman of the Executive Committee that he has signed a codicil to his will by which the Institution will be supplied with \$10,000 a year for ten years after his death—in total, \$100,000. During these same ten years, the income from the Fairchild endowment fund will be about \$54,000. The Donor is in good health, and will continue his assistance during his lifetime. These two provisions mean, however, that in due time the leading educators of the Nation will be furnished quite a sum of money with which to advance their thinking and planning for the character education of children. They also assure us a good chance to accumulate a large endowment which will afford ample income for thorough research work in this field of education. These initial contributions to the endowment funds give strong assurance that additions to the endowment

fund can be secured from time to time until the needed amount has been accumulated.

The directors of the National Institution for Moral Instruction are public officials of the various states, or their representatives, and therefore the Institution becomes in a true sense a public institution in its work, although on an endowment composed of private funds. It is merely a research nucleus under their control for the professional educators of the Nation to use in solving problems in the field of character education. It has no commercial purposes, and its one objective is the improvement of character education for all the children of the Nation. These facts make it entirely ethical for all educators to collaborate with it on their salaries as educators.—*From an authorized statement, Feb. 3, 1920.*

#### A FEEBLE-MINDED MURDERER IN MISSISSIPPI

Jackson, Miss., Dec. 22, 1919. A notable murder trial in south Mississippi resulted recently in dispatching to the penitentiary a 17 year old white boy. The boy's own defense was that the victim had "outrageously mistreated" his younger and half-witted brother. The younger brother in whose behalf the boy alleged he killed this man, has also been made a State ward at the Industrial Training School.

Each of these boys has been given an intelligence rating by Dr. Thomas H. Haines, Consulting Psychiatrist with the Mississippi Mental Hygiene Commission. Dr. Haines finds both boys feeble-minded. The murderer, who is 17, has a mental development of 8 years and 9 months. The other boy, who is 16, has the mind of an ordinary 9-year-old boy.

The penitentiary can do nothing to supply the lack of brain and mind to this young criminal. He cannot be reformed, because he lacks mental capacity. The time will never come when he should be set free, as competent to manage himself. By the conditions of his birth, his mind, and, consequently, his character, are prevented from developing. The 9-year-old mind of his younger brother is limited in the same way, and the Industrial Training School can never make a competent citizen of this handicapped youth.

These brothers afford striking illustrations of the need in Mississippi for a Training Colony, where such persons be *put and kept*, and *trained to do such kinds of work as they are capable of doing*. Trained in this way, these boys would be far happier than they can be when left at large, or when kept in schools designed for boys and girls of ordinary intelligence. Conditions in such a Colony would be adapted to their limited intelligence. Being suitably employed in a world thus adapted to their limitations, they would live the happiest possible lives.

If the State had had such an institution, these boys, known to be feeble-minded, as they must have been by the teachers in the schools where they attended, would have been placed years ago in the institution. The younger brother would not have been teased by the victim of the older brother, and the older brother would not have had the occasion or the opportunity to kill his man.

A State Training School for the feeble-minded is not only a humane plan for managing the feeble-minded themselves. It provides an economic institution on the part of the State, in that it saves lives and property which are destroyed by the feeble-minded when they are allowed to run at large.—*From the News Bulletin of the Mississippi Society for Mental Hygiene.*



## FEEBLE-MINDED PAUPERS IN MISSISSIPPI

Jackson, Miss., Dec. 29, 1919. Mississippi county poor farms shelter many paupers who are parasites simply because they have not enough brains to make their own livings. A particularly striking instance of this has been found by Dr. Thomas H. Haines, Scientific advisor to the Mississippi Mental Hygiene Commission. A north Mississippi county poor farm is sheltering eight white persons. Every one of these persons is in the poor farm for no other reason than that he is short-witted. There are three males and five females, ranging in age from 23 to 76.

That feeble-mindedness runs in families is emphasized by this group of poor house inmates. Twin sisters and a brother, all past 70, have been in this poor house for 18 years. Two other members of the same family came to the poor house with them. They were feeble-minded. They died in the poor house. There were three other members of this family, feeble-minded, who died before their father. These three old short-witted paupers, brother and sisters, are useless to society. They have always been parasites upon the community, as were the rest of their family. Such a family of parasitic feeble-minded persons certainly raises the question as to the wisdom of allowing such children to be born into the world.

Some intelligent control in this county, years ago, would have prevented this family of paupers coming into existence. This county is now spending over one thousand dollars a year on the mere food and shelter of eight feeble-minded white persons. Half of this sum spent annually would be ample to prevent the increase of feeble-minded families, and would be doing away with the necessity for a poor farm. This is what is called preventive medicine applied to feeble-mindedness.

Manifestly, counties cannot do this work. It must be state-wide in its character, in order to be effective. Mississippi needs a School and Colony for the Feeble-minded, where the sexes will be segregated, and where the feeble-minded will be trained to work. Had the father and mother of this family of eight feeble-minded paupers been put into such training and segregation eighty years ago, there would have been no feeble-minded children to inhabit the county poor farm all these years.

A sum equivalent to half the sum spent annually on provision for paupers in the counties of Mississippi would provide amply for the establishment and maintenance of a State institution to do this work in preventive medicine. This sum spent in this preventive way would not only support nearly half of the present inmates of the houses, but it would, at the same time, do away with a part of the future work of the poor houses, jails, penitentiary and orphanages of the state. Criminals and paupers come in stocks and families. A state can greatly improve its citizenship, and also cut down the expenses of maintaining paupers and dealing with delinquents, by restraining the increase of certain known poor stocks.

The Mississippi Mental Deficiency Bill, to be considered this winter by the Legislature, will provide for this curtailment of bad stocks. It establishes a Mississippi School and Colony for the Feeble-minded, and provides a plan for the Chancery Court to commit feeble-minded persons to this institution.—*From the News Bulletin of the Mississippi Society for Mental Hygiene.*



## PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

**Freund, Ernst.** *Illegitimacy Laws of the United States and Certain Foreign Countries.* U. S. Department of Labor, Children's Bureau. Legal Series No. 2. Bureau Publication No. 42. Washington, 1919. pp. 260, with folded summary sheets.

An exhaustive study of the legal status of illegitimacy, with special reference to the states of the Union. The general discussion headings are: Illegitimacy in relation to marriage and birth; The illegitimate child and the mother; The illegitimate child and the father; and Legislation for the support of the illegitimate child. Contains detailed discussion of the factors of divorce, property inheritance, and possible changes in the law in favor of the illegitimate child. Professor Freund is of the opinion that the rights of illegitimate children receive inadequate protection, chiefly by reason of the low payments and too brief periods of support. Child labor policies and other social factors are often ignored. The survey suggests the desirability of providing the following measures for all states: (1) a declaration that the issue of null marriages is legitimate; (2) a proceeding to establish legitimacy or illegitimacy; (3) legitimation by subsequent marriage of the father and mother, where the father acknowledges the child; (4) the possibility of voluntary legitimation after the death of the mother, or where marriage or adoption is impossible; (5) the possibility of adoption by the father; (6) a declaration that the relation of mother and child is the same whether the child is legitimate or illegitimate. The report contains a series of folded summary sheets admirably setting forth the salient facts in the illegitimacy laws for all states. (J. H. W.)

**Rogers, A. C. and Merrill, Maude A.** *Dwellers in the Vale of Siddem.* Richard G. Badger, Boston, 1919. pp. 80.

In this little volume Miss Merrill has presented one of the most significant contributions of recent years on the social consequences of feeble-mindedness. Following the suggestion of the late Dr. A. C. Rogers, the family histories gathered by Dr. Kuhlmann's assistants at Faribault have here been put to valuable use, illustrating the importance of field-work in the study of human problems. The Vale of Siddem is a picturesque spot in the upper Mississippi Valley which, in the search for relatives of feeble-minded children in the state institution at Faribault, Minnesota, the field-workers found teeming with a spawn of degeneracy including more unsocial individuals than were housed in all of the institutions of the state. From this Valley, it was found, have been recruited hordes of criminals, delinquents, prostitutes and paupers who have spread the contagion of their disgenic heritage over an incalculable area. Only five per cent of them have received any sort of public supervision or guardianship. The rest of them have been left free to propagate their kind. The cost of their ravages is beyond estimation.

The book reads like fiction, and yet is based on strictly scientific procedure. There is no evidence of exaggeration, or attempt to prove any theory or hypothesis. If the author has erred it is more than likely to have been on the side of over-conservatism. Persons familiar with the behavior of feeble-minded children and adults will recognize the symptoms of mental defect in the many incidents and

characteristics described. There can surely be no doubt as to the intellectual status of the Yak family. The conclusion that sixteen per cent of the sixteen hundred "dwellers" were "mental variants" appears all too modest.

The intimation that the state of Minnesota, despite the over-crowded condition of its institution, may have enough feeble-minded to fill several more institutions, is a timely commentary on the lack of interest on the part of most states with reference to one of the most important social problems of our day. We can hardly expect a consistently decent and law-abiding citizenship until all of the Vales of Siddem in Minnesota and elsewhere have been wiped out. It is good to have another contribution, along with the stories of the Jukes and the Kallikaks, to call our attention to the urgent need for preventive work. (J. H. W.)

## PERIODICAL LITERATURE

**Rural Clubs for Boys and Girls.** Over half a million boys and girls are members of government agricultural clubs. The keynote is individual competitive work on the part of each member. The club work always focuses on the four-fold life development—the Head, Hand, Heart, and Health of the boy and girl, and is organized with test charts, honors, emblems, etc. These clubs also offer a complete machinery by which various other agencies, such as Boy Scouts, or Y.M.C.A., may reach the young people of the rural community.—*Ross B. Johnston*. Survey, XLIII-13, Jan. 24, 1920. pp. 457-458. (W. W. C.)

**A Study of Race Differences in New York City.** An investigation conducted by the class in psychology of the New York School of Social Work to measure the differences in the levels of intelligence of representative groups from four races, Hebrew, Italian, Negro and native American, living in two similar locations. Tests were made of 500 boys each of the three white races and 230 colored boys, in grades V to VIII-A inclusive, using the Pressy group intelligence test. All cases tested were unselected except the Italians who are somewhat above the average of the group in the schools. Distributions of scores by races and ages show for ages 11 to 13, where the number of tests given renders results most accurate, definite levels, with Americans and Hebrews about equal and highest, Italians distinctly the lowest, and the Negroes about equidistant between the two extremes. Grouping by school grade lessens the differences but the relative standings remain as before. The conclusion is that the native Americans and Hebrews have about the same amount of intelligence, of the Negroes 30 per cent equal or exceed 50 per cent of the Hebrews, while of the Italians only 15 per cent equal or exceed 50 per cent of the Hebrews.—*Katharine Murdock*. School and Society, XI-266, January 31, 1920. pp. 147-150. (K. M. C.)

**Educational Sociology.** Review of Dr. W.E. Chancellor's "Educational Sociology" states that it contains little of value except the title which raises the question as to what is properly the scope of this topic. Sociology, though still in a comparatively undeveloped stage, is exerting a definite "fertilizing effect" on educational theory and practice. In the education both of the normal and of the abnormal the findings of sociology influence educational aims, give light to the question of the



content of school work, and, finally, are fundamental in determining the methods and the organization which will contribute most to a realization of the accepted educational aims. The task of educational sociology is to adapt to educational theory and practice the selected portions of the general science of sociology which have the most direct and important contribution to make to the peculiar problems of education.—*E. B. Reuter*. *School and Society*, XI-265, January 24, 1920. pp. 112-113. (K. M. C.)

**Conference on Mental Clinics and Social Work.** In this address before the conference, Miss Farrell points out and emphasizes the need of psychological and psychiatric examinations for the exceptional child as revealed by the school system. These examinations should be given to every child who is "different in any way from the normal type". The ungraded classes of the city schools would present the problems of the entire community, problems of delinquency, of lying, of stealing, problems of intellectual or volitional deviation, of inhibition, etc. The study of these in their earliest stages would bring about a comprehension of the problems of the children who are different. And not the least of these is the truant. Miss Farrell also makes a plea for after-care which would be based on the knowledge gained in the study of the individual cases.—*Elizabeth E. Farrell*. *State Hospital Quarterly*, V-1, Nov. 1919. pp. 124-127. (E. K. B.)

**A Study of Hysteria.** This study is "based mainly on clinical material observed in the U. S. Army Hospital for War Neuroses at Plattsburg Barracks, N. Y.". In the course of this work there arose the question of relationship between hysteria and malingering. "Nothing", quotes the writer, "resembles malingering more than hysteria; nothing hysteria more than malingering". It was found that an examination of hysteria and of malingering by means of the same tests produced the same results. Various criteria offered by others as a means of distinguishing between the two are discussed and disposed of as unreliable. In the end Dr. Rosanoff concludes that "what some have described under the name of hysteria and what others have described under the name of malingering are one and the same thing", the name hysteria being applied when viewed from the medical point of view and malingering when viewed from the legal point of view. In conclusion, the writer gives an interesting description of the hysterical personality and suggests that such terms as hysteria, war neurosis, concussion neurosis, traumatic neurosis, shell shock, etc., be abandoned for the general term constitutional psychopathic state, simulation.—*Aaron J. Rosanoff*, *State Hospital Quarterly*, V-I, Nov. 1919. pp. 22-43. (E. K. B.)

**An Application of Intelligence Tests to the Problem of School Retardation.** This article deals with the methods and results of a two year experiment in a crowded school with "an application of intelligence tests to the problem of school retardation" and the establishment of an ungraded room as a coaching center for the primary grades. The special school problem presented by the subnormal and supernormal child with the frequent troublesomeness which ensues from their wrong placement as to school grade was one of the chief motives of the study. Group tests of the Arthur and Woodrow "Absolute Intelligence Scale" and the Frances Lowell "Group Intelligence Scale for Primary Grades" were first given throughout the primary grades. The child with the low I. Q. was tested individually and that child of definite subnormality referred to the department for defective children. The child was then placed in



the grade corresponding with his mental age. The child with a group I. Q. over 1.10 was considered in the light of the teacher's estimate. If this was in accordance with the I. Q., promotion resulted; if not, an individual test was given. If, the test corroborated the results of the group test promotion or double work was given the child. It was found that, once properly placed as to grade, the child progressed at an even rate without the necessity of urging or other attention from the teacher. Whenever a child, correctly placed, showed signs of failing he was sent to the coaching room. The coaching room served two purposes: (1) to give aid in school work to children from other rooms; (2) to readjust and place in harmony with the school the attitude of a child from other rooms. Often, when extra help in school work showed the trouble to be other than intellectual, it was found that remediable physical defects, irregular habits of eating, sleeping, etc. were at fault. If neither intellectual nor physical, the handicap was often found to be emotional. To remedy this last, play was offered at the right times. In the two years of the experiment the number of necessary failures has been reduced from 11.09 per cent to 2.9 per cent. Special promotions for the entire eight grades of the school have increased from 1.5 per cent to 9.4 per cent.—*Grace Arthur. School and Society*, X-256, Nov. 22, 1919. pp. 614-620. (E. K. B.)

**Study of One Hundred and Thirty-one Delinquent Girls at the Juvenile Detention Home in Chicago, 1917.** This study is based on the compilation of 131 questionnaires following personal interviews with delinquent girls. One hundred of these girls had been guilty of sex delinquencies, 35 of whom had been object of criminal attack; however in only 19 cases was rape the sole sex experience. There is no important direct connection between delinquency in these cases and "the uniform" of soldiers and sailors. The girls ranged in age from 12 to 18, the average being 15½ years. One-sixth of the girls were foreign born, while less than one-third of the parents were native white Americans. Religion appeared as a routine matter or vague abstraction to practically every girl. Only 30 of the entire number of girls had graduated from the eighth grade; practically all had discontinued school at or before the age of 14. The occupations entered were a direct corollary of limited education—factory workers, servants, etc. The average wage was \$7.15 per week most of which was of necessity turned over to the family. Very few had ability to cook and sew and housework was generally distasteful. In the matter of recreation most enjoyed dancing and more attended moving picture shows regularly. However there was little supervised play or recreation. The broken family was a factor in a large number of cases, while the indirect influence of step-parents and drunken and immoral parents is also shown. An outstanding feature was the usually unrepentant attitude of the girls, the regret being principally the annoyance of confinement. Three-fourths of the whole group have been run-aways, usually because of the character of the home. A few cases were mentally subnormal and some were physically below par, but there are also a complexity and inter-dependency of social factors at work. Delinquency appears to be directly the result of dovetailing, interacting, social maladjustments and the real fight against it will not be started until domestic, industrial and civic life are consciously co-operated and socialized.—*June Purcell-Guild. Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology*, X-3, Nov. 1919. pp. 441-477. (W.W.C.)

# The Journal of Delinquency

Volume V

MAY, 1920

Number 3

## THE MENTAL AGES OF A GROUP OF 127 PROSTITUTES

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During the month following the armistice of November, 1919, an opportunity arose for testing a group of prostitutes confined in the city jail of Louisville, Ky.<sup>1</sup> These women had been arrested as street solicitors and inmates of disorderly houses, and were being held as menaces to the public health. They were all undergoing treating for venereal disease. Camp Taylor, situated but six miles from Louisville, at this time had some 50,000 recruits in training for army service.

The men who made the tests were all members of the psychological examining board of Camp Taylor which during the war had carried on the mental classification of some 100,000 recruits. These men had all had experience in adult testing and were thoroly competent to determine mental ages accurately. The testing was supervised by the writer who had been in charge of the individual testing in the camp.

The Stanford Revision of the Binet-Simon intelligence scale, as abbreviated for army use, was employed in making the tests.

The tests retained in this abbreviation are as follows, the years and tests being numbered as in Terman's "Measurement of Intelligence:"

Years	Tests			
III.....	1,	2,	3,	4
IV.....	1,	3,	4,	5
V.....	1,	3,	4,	5
VI.....	1,	2,	3,	4
VII.....	2,	5,	6,	Alt. 2
VIII.....	1,	2,	3,	4
IX.....	1,	2,	3,	4
X.....	2,	3,	5,	6
XII.....	3,	5,	6,	7, 8
XIV.....	2,	4,	5,	6
XVI.....	2,	4,	5,	6
XVIII.....	2,	3,	5,	6

<sup>1</sup>The writer wishes to acknowledge the many courtesies extended while the tests were being made by Warden J. H. Barr and Dr. A. M. Barnett.



While the use of the full test might have resulted in a somewhat higher or lower mental age for individuals, it is believed that the results for the group as a whole may be accepted as being close to what the full scale would have given.

The problem of getting the proper "rapport" was not a difficult one. The men doing the testing were in a uniform similar to that worn by the jail physician and were introduced as "doctor". The women generally believed that the test was a part of their "treatment" and that a good response would hasten the much desired "cure" that would once again set them free. It was the unanimous opinion of the examiners that the subjects, in all but a few cases, did the best that they were capable of doing. It is believed, therefore, that the mental ages resulting from the tests may be accepted as reasonably accurate.

TABLE I. MENTAL AGE DISTRIBUTION OF 127 PROSTITUTES

Mental Ages <sup>2</sup>	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	Total No. Cases
No. of Cases	1	3	6	21	23	25	13	19	12	3	1	127

Table I shows the distribution of the mental ages of the 127 individuals tested. The median mental age is 9 years and 10 months. Table II compares the I. Q.'s of this group with others referred to in Terman's, "The Intelligence of School Children." It will be seen that the prostitutes are decidedly inferior to all of the other groups; practically 70 per cent having an I. Q. below .70. The salesgirls referred to earn an I. Q. over 30 points above that of the prostitutes, and only 8 per cent of them fall below .70. Fig. 1 shows the range of I. Q.'s of the middle 50 per cent of the various groups. The mental inferiority of the prostitutes can here be seen at a glance.

Whether these 127 women may be accepted as representative of their class is not certain. Some similar investigations have yielded results substantially in accord with these findings. Goddard states that "Many competent judges estimate that 50 per cent of prostitutes are feeble-minded." The investigations referred to in the bibliography below unanimously testify to the low mental capacity of this class of women. It may be, however, that these women were caught by the officers of the law due to their inferior intelligence, and that the more intelligent women of the same class manage to carry on their trade without being apprehended. Until some data

2. Five tests were not wholly complete, but were sufficiently complete so that it was thought possible to estimate within a few months what the complete test would have given.



are obtained tending to prove this, however, it will remain doubtful whether the percentage of prostitutes with normal minds is at all comparable with the population as a whole. It cannot be stated, however, with certainty that these 127 women represent an unselected group of prostitutes.

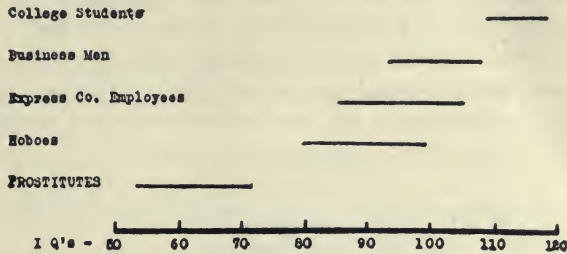


Fig. 1. Range of Intelligence Quotients. (Middle 50 per cent). Prostitutes compared with other groups.

TABLE II. COMPARISON OF I. Q.'S OF VARIOUS GROUPS<sup>3</sup>

		Per cent in each I.Q. Group											Median I. Q.
Group	No. of Cases	20- 29	30- 39	40- 49	50- 59	60- 69	70- 79	80- 89	90- 99	100- 109	110- 119	120- 122	
College students	153							1.9	8.5	40.5	43.1	5.9	109
Business men	40							7.5	37.5	42.5	12.5	--	102
Express employees	47				4	4	23	19		19	17	12.7	95
Street Car employees	82				4	23	30	33		7	2.4	--	86
Firemen & policemen	30				7	27	37	20		7	3	--	84
Salesgirls	61				8	29	25	26		8	3	--	85
Hoboes & unemployed	256				5	14	21	27	16	10	5	1.1	89
Prostitutes	127	.8	2	9.5	30	27	22	8	.8	--	--	--	61

3. All of these groups but the prostitutes are taken from Terman—"The Intelligence of School Children."

The social significance of the findings is apparent. The folly of allowing these women to go back upon the streets is evident. Many of them were old offenders and had been arrested in Louisville on similar charges on several previous occasions. Yet in spite of their past records and the evidence of the mental tests, the authorities had no choice but to thrust them back again upon the streets after a course of treatment for venereal disease. Louisville's method of dealing with the problem is not dissimilar from that of most large cities. Until the social significance of feeble-mindedness is better recognized in our legal enactments, however, proper steps cannot be taken to prevent the continuance of such conditions.

#### REFERENCES

Report of the Massachusetts "Commission for the Investigation of the White Slave Traffic, So-Called."

300 prostitutes were examined, 51 per cent declared definitely feeble-minded.

Not more than six of the entire number seemed to have "really good minds."

Third Annual Report—Adult Probation Officer, Cook County, Ill.

126 prostitutes examined, and 85 per cent declared "distinctly feeble-minded."

"One Hundred Female Offenders", Clinton P. McCord, M. D.,  
The Training School Bulletin, 1915.

50 prostitutes examined, 56 per cent declared feeble-minded.

## IMPROPER USE OF THE I. Q.

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There is a marked tendency in recent literature to use the intelligence quotient for purposes to which it is not directly applicable. This use of the I. Q. is not only improper from a scientific standpoint but is seriously misleading. This use of the I. Q. furthermore very greatly restricts the value of many otherwise valuable contributions.

The I. Q. is founded on two important assumptions which psychology cannot as yet afford to concede and which have as yet very little foundation in experimental evidence. The first of these assumes that the average limit of growth of intelligence is 16 years; the second assumes that intelligence growth is constant for individuals throughout the developmental period, or at least between 4 years and 16 years or age. The first assumption is apparently based upon the conclusion that the average level of intelligence of adults is a mental age of 16 years. This is apparently founded on the fact that the median intelligence of 32 high school students and 30 business men is 16 years. We must protest, however, that high school students and business men are not 'average' adults. High school students are selected in favor of superior intelligence on the basis of superior educability and business men are selected in favor of superior intelligence on the basis of occupational success. The really average individual does not get beyond the seventh or eighth school grade and the really average adult by occupational classification is a relatively unskilled wage earner. More recent work by Terman has indicated that the median intelligence of such wage earners as street car conductors, policemen, firemen, clerks and the like is only about 13 or 14 years. Psychological examining in the Army has also indicated very clearly that the typical or average adult has a mental age between 13 or 14 years. In other words the evidence of recent investigation has indicated rather clearly that the average mental age of unselected adults is much more probably 13 years than 16.

Within the last four years the idea has been advanced that intelligence develops regularly at a rate which is constant for each individual throughout his developmental period. The evidence of this



is very meager and is based upon certain statistical fallacies. In the first place the I. Q. is a constant only on the average and an average may remain constant while its component data change very considerably. Moreover we would expect the I. Q. to remain constant on the average because of the empirical nature of the Binet Scale which is so devised that the average child will gain 1 year in mental age for each year of increase in life age. In other words intelligence growth is constant on the average only in relation to a scale of tests whose fundamental principle of standardization presupposes this constancy. In the second place significant variations in intelligence growth are obscured in the I. Q. expression of intelligence status because any change in mental age from year to year is 'liquidated' or spread out over the entire previous ages of an individual. Thus if a child with an I. Q. of 1.00 at the age of 10 years makes absolutely no mental gain during the next year, his I. Q. for that period would not drop 100 points as the facts indicate but would drop only 10 points because the loss of 1 year in mental age is spread over a period of 11 years instead of over a period of 1 year. Similarly, if a child with an I. Q. of 1.00 at the age of 10 years makes twice normal progress or 200 per cent in the ensuing year, his I. Q. would increase only 10 points because this gain of 2 years by the I. Q. expression is thinned out over a period of 11 years.

No one can deny that the I. Q. is a very valuable device for indicating relative mental status. It is undoubtedly a better expression than amount of absolute retardation. Neither can one deny that for purposes of comparing children for certain purposes the ratio of mental age to life age is a device by which this can be accomplished. Nevertheless, while the I. Q. serves a purpose of assisting in the immediate diagnosis or present classification of an individual the indiscriminate grouping of I. Q.'s obtained from individuals of widely different ages or mental ages is not permissible. It has frequently been said, but seems to need repetition, that an I. Q. of .50 where the life age is 8 is not the same as an I. Q. of .50 where the life age is 16 because in the former case the mental age is only 4 years while in the latter case the mental age is 8 years. The former case has only half the intelligence of the latter and for the time at least cannot possibly be compared with the latter as being of the same intellectual status. Even if we assume the I. Q. to be a constant the former individual will equal the latter only after 8 additional years of life.

Many studies appearing in the *Journal of Delinquency* have attempted to use the I. Q. as a basis of classification in scientific investigation. The relation of intelligence to delinquency, for example, has been studied by many contributors to the *Journal*. The majority of these studies do not make mental diagnoses of the delinquents on a combination of clinical considerations but simply give an intelligence classification of delinquents on the basis of I. Q.'s assuming that particular I. Q. ranges indicate specific diagnostic categories. Whenever subjects of such investigation are not of the same age the value of the study is very seriously limited because of the fact that the mental age limits of the diagnostic categories are as yet only indefinitely determined. One I. Q. of .75 may mean a mental age of 9 while another may mean a mental age of 12. The mental age of 9, I. Q. .75 may mean feeble-mindedness at the age of 12 but a mental age of 12 does not necessarily mean feeble-mindedness at the age of 16. In the Army about 45 per cent of recruits had mental ages below 13, and 25 per cent had mental ages below 11. It is obvious that a mental age below 12 cannot be considered as indicative of feeble-mindedness among these recruits. In brief, whenever the relation of mental age to life age is expressed only as an I. Q. ratio, the critical student has no basis for evaluating results because he does not know the actual mental age and life age distributions of the subjects. Moreover, if such a student is unwilling to accept the assumptions of the 16-year level and the constancy of the I. Q., he cannot evaluate in his own terms the meaning of such results. And if the life ages of the subjects in a particular study are all 16 years or over then the I. Q. expression of results is not superior to the mental age expression since the I. Q.'s are the mental ages times a constant, namely, the reciprocal of 16. To the average reader the mental ages are much more intelligible than the I. Q. and since the two distributions are the same when ages are above 15 years there is no particular reason for multiplying the mental ages by a constant.

Another type of study appearing in this *Journal* investigates the relation between school or vocational success and intelligence. A recent study, for example, attempts to show the relation between vocational progress and intelligence. The study is based on the relation of vocational progress to I. Q.'s independently of actual mental ages. Certain conclusions are drawn which seem to show that there are critical I. Q. values above and below which failure or success of learning is assured. But success in school work or vocational work



is a direct function of mental age. An average four-year-old child with an I. Q. of 1.00 is unable to read while an average 12 year old child with an I. Q. of 1.00 is able to read nearly anything. The former case would show progress while the latter would not. Similarly, in vocational work there are certain mental age limits which determine the success or failure of learners. Let us say that a person with a mental age below 9 cannot succeed in a particular vocation while persons with intelligence beyond 14 are completely successful. A child with an I. Q. of 1.00 at the age of 8 would then fail to succeed (at the time at least), while an individual with an I. Q. of .65 at the age of 16 would have some likelihood of success. If the mental age of the individual is the primary condition in success, then success cannot be measured by means of the I. Q. unless the ages of the individuals are all the same, and if they are all the same then the I. Q. classification is only the mental age classification times a constant, namely the reciprocal of the constant age.

Another study by Dr. Gordon indicates the correlation between success in mental test and the I. Q. standing. Again we must insist that performance in a given mental test is ordinarily a function of actual mental age rather than relative intellectual status. Practically all studies of diagnostic mental test have indicated relation between performance in such a test to actual mental age. But Dr. Gordon shows the correlation between the performance in the Knox Cube test and I. Q. The correlation obviously is not significant unless the I. Q.'s of the subjects are based on the same life ages. A four-year-old child with I. Q. 1.00 fails in the Knox Cube test while a 16-year-old child with I. Q. 1.00 passes practically every problem in the Knox Cube test. A child with I. Q. .50 at an age of 16 whose mental age is 8, will do better in the Knox Cube test than a child of I. Q. 1.00 at the age of six, unless indeed there is a qualitative influence of brightness in test. And if Dr. Gordon's I. Q.'s are based on the same life ages then again we must say that the classification is not superior to the mental age classification since the I. Q. classification when life ages are equal is only the mental age classification times a constant.

It therefore seems both necessary and desirable to urge that all experimental studies of the relation of intelligence status to performance in tests or vocations cannot afford to ignore the actual mental ages of the subjects. It also seems necessary to insist that mental diagnoses based on I. Q.'s are unintelligible unless the actual mental ages or life ages accompany the I. Q. statements.



## INDIVIDUAL CASE HISTORY OUTLINE

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In response to numerous requests for information concerning the case study work at this School the department of research has in process of preparation a research manual, which will set forth in detail the methods used, with some illustrative samples of case studies. Members of the department have been at work on this manual during the past five years, but up to the present time it has been available only in unpublished form. The outline here presented includes only the individual personal history, this being of the most immediate value in preparing a case study. It is intended to serve until the manual is ready.

The staff of the department includes two trained field-workers<sup>1</sup> who gather the information and prepare the histories. These people are more than field-workers in the limited sense of the term, because they are constantly studying the problem with the view to the rendering of as much practical interpretation as possible. The histories have been extremely helpful in the regular work of the School by reason of this attitude.

It should be emphasized that there is no questionnaire or "form" on which the information is gathered. The outline represents the general headings under which the field-worker is to present and discuss the findings, and strict adherence to the outline is encouraged, but no limitations are placed upon investigations, as is always the tendency in the use of definite forms or questions. There is nothing which permits a "yes" or "no" answer, or no pre-conceived categories to be "checked". Each topic and sub-topic is a key suggestion for a full and impartial inquiry. The only limitations are time, availability of the data, and the resourcefulness of the investigator.

The outline is intended primarily for the study of children who are under some form of public supervision, but is equally applicable to adults. In our work it is followed closely for each member included in family histories. The associated outline for the prepara-

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1. Miss Mildred S. Covert and Miss Edythe K. Bryant occupy these positions at present. The field staff has also included Mr. Karl M. Cowdery, Mr. Willis W. Clark and Miss Evelyn Raynolds. Acknowledgments are due all of these faithful workers.

of family history will appear in the research manual, and will be accompanied by some representative histories including both the individual and the family data.

In the preparation of these outlines we have made liberal use of a number of recent standard works, to which credit is given in the list of references. We particularly wish to acknowledge that the method is an elaboration of the plan followed by the Eugenics Record Office, from which this extension has received much encouragement.

WHITTIER STATE SCHOOL  
DEPARTMENT OF RESEARCH

TENTATIVE OUTLINE OF PERSONAL HISTORY

I. Chronological data.

*Meaning.* Includes important time and place events in the life of the individual, from birth to the time at which the history is prepared. Exact dates should be used, and places should be located as minutely as possible. Frequent references to the age of the individual in connection with important changes or events are desirable. The description should include:

1. *Name*, in full. In case of married women, put maidenname in parentheses, thus: Elizabeth Ann (Smith) Brown.
2. *Birth*. Date and place, as detailed as possible.
3. *Race and nativity*, with necessary elaboration.
4. *Residence*. Give different places of residence in chronological order, with dates of changes. Also note important factors prompting such changes. Be exact as possible.
5. *Incidence of social condition*. Time, place, and age at which the social conditions involved were first observed or recorded. (e. g., beginnings of delinquency, dependency, pauperism, or other conditions.)
6. *Public wardship*. Details of court handling, institution residence or detention, etc., with dates, ages, and reasons. Include data on probation, commitment, parole, discharge, etc.
7. *Marriages, divorces, etc.*
8. *Death*. Give exact date, place, age, cause.

*Important sources.* Official vital statistics; relatives; personal interviews; institution and other official records.



## II. Intelligence.

*Meaning.* Refers to *mental capacity*, without regard to education, training and experience, except insofar as such conditions may be indicative of capacity. Since we are chiefly concerned with social factors, the definition given by Stern furnishes a good working basis: "Intelligence is a general capacity of an individual to adjust his thinking to new requirements: it is a general mental adaptability to new problems and conditions of life." See also Terman's discussion of other conceptions of intelligence. The following items should be included in the report:

1. *Measurements.* Results of psychological tests, with conclusions of examiners as to mental level, special characteristics, probable development, etc. Give results in detail with examiner's interpretations. Examination results should ordinarily be presented in order of date except where some especially valuable diagnosis is available in which event it should be given first.

2. *Developmental facts.* A chronological description of the individual's mental development, concretely illustrated with incidents. Also include physical or other factors which may have been related to mental development.

3. *Social aspects.* An account of intellectual reactions to practical life problems, including education, vocation, conduct, etc.

*Important sources.* Test results; judgments of psychologists, teachers, physicians and (cautiously) relatives; personal interviews.

## III. Temperament.

*Meaning.* Refers chiefly to the expression of character in the form of *mood*. Ranges from pathological depression (hypokinesis) to pathological excitation (hyperkinesis). Individuals who are temperamentally well-balanced incline in neither of these directions, and are termed *moderate*. In the development of the Whittier temperamental scale (not yet published) it has been found convenient and practicable to classify individuals into the following seven groups:

1. *Melancholic.* A state of extreme inactivity or depression. Persons with whom this mood prevails are usually unresponsive, mute, lachrymose, and given to worry. They are often weak and incapable. They feel life to be a burden, and often long for death as a relief. This is a definite pathological state, and usually results in a diagnosis of insanity.

2. *Phlegmatic.* A state of unusual depression and inactivity, but not sufficiently marked to be adjudged pathological. Phlegmatic persons may be found in any of the common walks of life and may be



either successful or unsuccessful in their careers. They are quiet, reserved, serious, and sometimes given to pessimism. They are apt to be identified with the lower social levels because of their lack of ambition to advance. They frequently lack courage. Phlegmatic children are problematic in school, because of the difficulty encountered by the teachers in eliciting response. The intelligence of such a child may be easily underestimated unless psychological tests are used.

3. *Calm.* A state of partial inhibition, in which the individual is inclined to be unusually quiet, composed, and appears to be exercising an unnecessary degree of self-restraint. Reacts slowly, tends to be a follower rather than an initiator.

4. *Moderate.* Possessor is uniformly cheerful without being boisterous. Is sensible, well-balanced, *en rapport* socially. Works and plays moderately, laughs quietly, does not weep easily, feels little drive, and is always responsive and cooperative.

5. *Active.* Persons with whom this state prevails are alert, wide-awake and energetic. They initiate new movements, take chances on uncertainties, and are usually progressive. Although their nervous system responds quickly, they do not exhibit the usual symptoms of nervousness. They are likely to be leaders, at least to the extent their intelligence will permit.

6. *Excitable.* These persons are extremely active, but are weak in the control of their activities, frequently becoming nervous or excited. They tend to exhibit a violent temper, and to be restless, talkative, jolly and enthusiastic. They are sometimes braggarts, conceited, profane, or brutal.

7. *Choleric.* This represents the pathological state of excitation in which the inhibitory control is so weak as to render the individual dangerously insane. It is expressed in destructiveness, exultation, homicidal acts, irritability and psycho-motor pressure. Such persons are erratic and fanatical and usually come to the attention of the lunacy authorities. Their condition is easily observed, and calls for special supervision or custodial treatment.

The foregoing groups do not indicate temperamental "types" and are not intended to be sharply defined. They represent, descriptively, some of the stages in temperamental variability. Our experience indicates that most persons can be classified roughly in this grouping.

Care should be taken to limit the descriptions and classifications to the *prevailing state*, and to avoid undue emphasis on temperamental reactions of short duration. Probably most persons at times exhibit all of the non-pathological states.

The personal history should include, under this heading, an accurate and carefully prepared description of the individual from the standpoint of temperament, with classification, as nearly as possible,

according to the foregoing conception of temperamental variability. The description should take into consideration all obtainable facts which indicate his most common mood. It should include:

1. *Present temperamental status*, according to the observations and judgments of competent persons, including wherever possible, the opinion of the individual himself.
2. *General disposition*, i. e. happy, sad, cheerful, etc., with detailed description.
3. *Developmental history*, including the prevailing temperamental status at different age periods, and under different conditions, associations, etc.

*Important sources.* Parents; teachers; supervisors (in institutions); psychologists; personal interviews.

#### IV. Other mental conditions.

*Meaning.* This heading includes mental conditions which are not strictly intellectual and which are not ordinarily fully disclosed by the intelligence examination. It includes irregularities of mental development either favorable or unfavorable to the individual. Mental disorders arrange themselves into two fundamental categories, characterized respectively by *insufficiency* and *pervision* of the intellectual or moral processes. Mental disease or psychoses are affections in which mental symptoms constitute a prominent feature. They differ from such mental infirmities as idiocy, moral insanity and many states of dementia, in that they are expressions of active pathological processes and not of permanent and fixed alterations of the mind—(de Fursac and Rosanoff). The description should include:

1. *Examination results*, ordinarily presented in order of date, except where some especially value diagnosis is available, in which event it should be given first.
2. *Developmental facts*, including incidents which would show regular or irregular mental development from birth to the present time.
3. *Observations, statements, opinions and judgments* of persons who have been in a position to observe the individual's behavior and development. Include also daily or weekly observations and reports of internes, nurses, special reports by psychologists, etc.
4. *Influences.* Give any outside or other influence which alleviates or detracts from the usual mental condition.
5. *Illustrative material.* Samples of the subject's conversation or letter writing which would indicate a tendency toward aberration.



*Important sources.* Psychiatrists; physicians; neighbors; school teachers; parents; employers; friends; associates; institution records; personal interviews.

## V. Physical condition.

*Meaning.* This topic refers to the various factors which indicate or may have affected the individual's physical status or general health, from his pre-natal period to the time at which the history is prepared. The report should include:

1. *Personal description*, including general appearance, posture, gait, complexion, color of hair and eyes, facial expression, motor habits, energy, stigmata, abnormalities of appearance, marks, scars, etc.
2. *Medical examination results.* Detailed reports of examinations by physicians, including specific findings, concerning the more important phases of physical development and health. The physician's description and diagnosis should be given in as much detail as practicable.
3. *Special examinations*, of teeth, eyes, ears, nose and throat, nervous system, etc. Include results of any laboratory tests.
4. *Physical measurements*, of height, weight, vision, hearing, grip, lung capacity, cutaneous sense, etc., in which results can be expressed in numerical or exact terms, and comparisons made with established norms.
5. *Developmental history*, including pre-natal care, birth, infant and childhood growth, nutrition, accidents, diseases, etc.

*Important sources.* Physicians; hospital and dispensary records; institution examinations; teachers; relatives; personal interviews.

## VI. Moral character.

*Meaning.* In discussing this aspect of individuals it should be borne in mind that moral character is, chiefly, that phase of the individual's make-up which produces in varying degrees adaptation and conformity to social custom. This social aspect would involve an account of the individual with regard to honesty, trustworthiness, sense of responsibility, respect for the rights of others, sex relations, altruism, courage, perseverance, ideals, fair play and sportsmanship, cooperation, obedience, etc. In addition, moral character has what we might term a personal aspect whose influence on adaptation to social custom is less direct. This includes such traits as refinement in thought, speech and habit, self-respect, self-knowledge, regard for the future, care of personal appearance, personal sex habits, etc., and their opposites. Throughout note should be made of the



amount of will-power present in the individual. This will be more easily detected perhaps, in the amount of voluntary restraint exercised over natural or other impulses and in the amount of initiative displayed. The report should include:

1. *Present status.* Classify the moral character of the individual as accurately as possible, preferably in terms of standardized moral character scales, based on judgments of competent observers.
2. *Physical habits,* including use of, or abstinence from alcohol, drugs, tobacco, or any physical indulgences.
3. *Religious affiliation.* This is important to know, but care should be taken in interpreting its exact influence.
4. *Developmental facts.* Trace the moral make-up through the developmental period, noting the age and other conditions associated with the characteristics noted.
5. *Influencing factors.* Note to what extent the moral tendencies are associated with inherited characteristics and to what extent acquired or modified through personal attitude and environmental conditions.

*Important sources.* Psychologists; teachers; relatives; probation officers; court records; personal interviews; observations.

## VII. Conduct.

*Meaning.* Social behavior including both favorable and unfavorable reactions. Especially valuable are facts which reveal the conditions under which the individual's best conduct is obtained. Care should be taken lest the report be merely an account of misbehavior. At the same time there should be no omission of significant items in misconduct and the conditions associated with offenses. Should include:

1. *Developmental facts.* An account of the individual's general social behavior by age or growth periods (infancy, childhood, youth, maturity) including favorable and unfavorable reactions.
2. *Legal status.* In case of offenders or delinquents, give chronological account of misconduct, following Whittier classification.

*Important sources.* Parents; relatives; personal interviews; official and institution records; principals; probation officers.

## VIII. Associates.

*Meaning.* Associates are persons with whom one comes in contact at home, in school, at work, on the street, in church, etc., and those with whom leisure time is spent. The associations may have arisen

through accidental circumstances, or may be due to desired cultivation. It is generally conceded that character and development are closely related to associates. Care should be taken to avoid *a priori* conclusions as to the influence of companions, but it is important to know all of the obtainable facts, including:

1. *General attitude* of the individual toward companions. State whether inclined (a) to be solitary, (b) to associate with a single companion, or (c) to have many companions.
2. *Description*, names and sex of companions.
3. *Activities* of the individual in association with these persons.
4. *Places* at which these activities occurred, and the conditions which encouraged them.
5. *Voluntary or involuntary nature* of these associations.
6. *Leadership*. State whether the individual is a leader or a follower in his companionship, and to what extent.
7. *Developmental facts*. Describe association conditions at different ages, noting significant changes.

*Important sources.* Relatives; teachers; friends; court records; supervisors; attendants.

## IX. Amusements.

*Meaning.* Includes all forms of activity which constitute relaxation or diversion for the individual concerned. The aim should be to get at the method which the individual has taken, either voluntarily or otherwise, to spend his leisure time. The description should include data on the following:

1. *Recreation*. Interest in outings, camping, fishing, hunting, etc.
2. *Travel*, where interest in the main incentive.
3. *Games and sports*. Enumerate chief interests, and ability displayed.
4. *Reading*. Kind and extent, with chief interests.
5. *Public entertainment*. Extent of interest in social or public functions, including theatres, dances, etc. Indicate quality of choice.
6. *Exercise of talent*. Time spent as result of special interest or ability; as art, music, mechanics, etc.

*Important sources.* Personal interviews; relatives; probation officers; teachers; observations.

## X. Education.

*Meaning.* Achievements in knowledge or training whether arrived at formally or informally. The report should lend itself to a diagnosis of the subject's present educational status, and the inferences as to the training he ought to pursue.

1. *Measurements.* Results of standardized educational tests.

2. *Schooling.* Give a chronological account of school attendance, nothing achievement, by age and grade periods, with notations on success, regularity, application, special interests and dislikes, special abilities and disabilities. Give dates of important promotions or changes, graduations, degrees, distinctions, etc.

3. *Experience.* Here record informal education, obtained as a result of experience outside of school.

*Important sources.* Educational tests; teachers and principals; school records; personal interviews.

## XI. Vocational record.

*Meaning.* This item refers to vocational experiences and aptitudes. Details should be given concerning the specific work performed, as well as the general occupational classification. The object of this study is to furnish a practical basis for giving vocational guidance.

1. *Measurements.* Results of tests of vocational or mechanical ability, ordinarily presented in order of date, except when some especially valuable diagnosis is available, in which event it should be given first. Diagnosis of vocational advisors may be reported here. Status on occupational scale.

2. *Developmental facts.* Data relative to training or experience, apprenticeship, promotion, occupations engaged in, vocational preference, regularity and term of employment, wages. Membership in industrial or professional organizations.

3. *Observations.* Statements by employers and acquaintances. Analysis of mental, physical, educational and social factors including summary of favorable and unfavorable vocational qualifications, general aptitudes, with indications of vocational future.

*Important sources.* Personal interviews; employers; teachers; trade instructors.

## XII. Home conditions.

*Meaning.* An account of the social status of the home, with special reference to the factors related to the subject's social develop-



ment and adaptation. Follow the plan of the Whittier Scale for Grading Home Conditions, the principal items of which are:

1. *Necessities*: the status of the home with reference to the ordinary needs of life; income, food, and clothing; shelter, etc.
2. *Neatness*: the order and taste in which the home is arranged; also its condition from the standpoint of sanitation and health.
3. *Size*: relative size, with reference to the number of persons living in the home.
4. *Parental conditions*: the important facts concerning the parents, the extent to which they are living together, and the degree of harmony which usually prevails.
5. *Parental supervision*: the extent to which the parents (or guardians) exercise their jurisdiction over the physical, mental and moral welfare of the children; the quality and fairness of this control.

*The home index.* After the data for all items are recorded each item is accorded a grade on a scale of 5 points, according to its agreement in *quality*, not in specific detail, with the graded samples of actual homes on the *Standard Score Sheet*, the use of which is necessary to uniform grading. The sum of the item-grades constitutes the *Home Index*.

*Important sources.* Visit to the home; relatives; personal interviews; neighbors; social agencies.

### XIII. Neighborhood conditions.

*Meaning.* An account of the social status of the neighborhood with special reference to the factors related to the subject's social development and adaptation. Follow the plan of the Whittier Scale for Grading Neighborhood Conditions, the principal items of which are:

1. *Neatness, sanitation, improvements*: the status of the neighborhood with reference to general appearance, cleanliness, sanitary equipment, and modern improvements.
2. *Recreational facilities*: the extent to which provision is made for recreation in the homes and neighborhoods.
3. *Institutions and establishments*: the kind and value of educational, industrial, and social institutions in the neighborhood, with special reference to their probable moral effect on the community.
4. *Social status of residents*: educational, vocational, and moral conditions, including standards of living.
5. *Average quality of homes*: an estimate of the probable range of home indices, as compared with that of the *propositus*, according to Whittier Scale for Grading Home Conditions.

*The neighborhood index.* After the data for all items are recorded, each item is accorded a grade on a scale of 5 points, according to its agreement in *quality*, not in specific detail, with the graded samples of actual neighborhoods on the *Standard Score Sheet*, the use of which is necessary to uniform grading. The sum of the item-grades constitutes the *Neighborhood Index*.

*Important sources.* Visit to the neighborhood; relatives; personal interviews; neighbors; social agencies.

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*Note:* The complete manual will contain a list of source references for each topic. It has seemed advisable to omit them in this presentation. Following are some selected titles which cover the different phases of social investigation, and which contain valuable suggestions for the practical worker.

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# The Journal of Delinquency

Published bi-monthly by Whittier State School  
WHITTIER, CALIFORNIA

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Entered as second-class matter March 27, 1916 at the Post Office at Whittier, California, under the Act of August 24, 1912. Acceptance for mailing at special rate of postage provided for in Section 1103, Act of October 3, 1917, authorized August 3, 1918.

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Vol. V

May, 1920

No. 3

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## NEW PERIODICALS

Three new publications have come to the editor's desk. All of them indicate a growing interest in the fundamental problems related to better human conduct. We are glad to welcome them.

*Studies in Mental Inefficiency* is a new quarterly (?) issued by the Central Association for the Care of the Mentally Defective, of London. It is apparently to have the editorial supervision of Dr. G. E. Shuttleworth and Dr. A. F. Tredgold. In the initial issue, dated January 15, 1920, Dr. Shuttleworth presents an editorial foreword setting forth the aims and purposes of the Association. Dr. Tredgold contributes a paper on "Moral Defectives." An article by Lucy Fildes discusses "Individual Studies, their Educational Significance." This journal should be an excellent stimulus toward advanced legislation. The publication office is Queen Anne's Chambers, Tothill Street, Westminster, S. W. The subscription is three shillings per year.

The *Mental Hygiene Bulletin* is the new official publication of the Canadian Committee for Mental Hygiene. It is in the nature of an information bulletin, setting forth data relative to that efficient organization. Among the recent accomplishments of the Committee

are surveys of the provinces of Manitoba and British Columbia, the establishment of psychiatric clinics in Ontario and Quebec, the treatment of disabled soldiers, work in connection with immigration and education authorities, the establishment of a library, and the organization of a bureau of statistics. The official scientific publication of the Society is the *Canadian Journal of Mental Hygiene*, published quarterly at \$2.00 per year. The address is 9 College Street, Toronto.

The *California Institution Quarterly*, the initial number being dated March 1920, is published by Whittier State School under the editorship of Karl M. Cowdery, assistant superintendent. It is the official organ of the California State School Conference, which meets four times each year at different institutions, including state industrial schools, state schools for feeble-minded, state hospitals, and state school for the blind. The first issue gives an abstract of proceedings for the last quarterly meeting, and contains news items concerning institutional progress in California. The quarterly is sent free to interested persons. (J. H. W.)

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## PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

Cabot, Richard C. *Social Work. Essays on the Meeting-ground of Doctor and Social Worker.* Houghton Mifflin Company, N.Y., 1919. pp. 188.

Designed to meet the needs of social workers, this volume is assured of an important place as a text and reference book particularly in the field of medical social service. Following a brief introduction concerning the historical development of social assistance in medical work, Dr. Cabot groups the essays in two parts, —Medical-Social Diagnosis and Social Treatment. In the first part he refers to the training, ability, and equipment which should be had by the "social assistant" of a physician and the various economic, mental, social, and industrial investigations that should be made. Interspersed throughout each chapter are numerous timely suggestions and illustrations concerning points that should be observed and concerning patients' attitudes. The section regarding Social Treatment contains a chapter on samples of social therapeutics and one on the motive of social work. The writer's insistence on the observance of scientific methods and individual diagnosis and treatment, together with his understanding of the interrelations of social problems, has earned a careful consideration for his presentations in the field of medico-social service. (W. W. C.)

Chicago Crime Commission. *Concerning Crime in Chicago.* A stenographic report of the First Annual Meeting. Bulletin No. 10. Jan. 19, 1920. pp. 20.

This bulletin contains the by-laws of the Chicago Crime Commission organized by the Chicago Association of Commerce for the purpose of promoting the efficiency and activities of officers and departments charged with the duty of the suppression, prevention and punishment of crime. It includes the reports of the



operating director and the various committees which indicate the activities of the commission. (W. W. C.)

Colcord, Joanna C. *Broken Homes. A Study of Family Desertion and its Social Treatment.* Russell Sage Foundation, N. Y., 1919. pp. 208.

This study is one of Social Work Series edited by Miss Mary E. Richmond, author of *Social Diagnosis*. The series plans to consider the individual social maladjustments in small, practical volumes each written by a specialist in social case treatment. Miss Colcord presents such a study concerning family desertion. It is essentially practical and constructive, suggestive of the efficient methods which may be used in social investigation and treatment by trained and experienced workers. The principal chapter following an introduction are: Why do men desert their families; Changes of emphasis in treatment; Finding the deserting husband; Further items in the investigation; The details of treatment; The home-staying non-supporter; Next steps in corrective treatment; Next steps in preventive treatment. With the increase in the number of such valuable studies and the growth of the body of literature on the subject we may confidently expect the more general recognition of social work as one of the professions. (W. W. C.)

Henry, Mary Bess. *Santa Ana's Problem in Americanization.* Santa Ana Public Schools, Department of Research, Bulletin No. 2. Santa Ana, California, Feb. 1920. pp. 24.

A brief but significant study of one of the most perplexing educational and social problems of Southern California. The "Americanization" problem of Santa Ana, as in many other cities and towns of this region, is exclusively one of dealing with Mexican residents. This study, prompted by the difficulties incident to the education of the three hundred Mexican children in the Santa Ana Schools, includes an inquiry into home conditions, temperament, occupation, intelligence and school progress.

The home conditions were found to be poor. The application of the Whittier Scale for grading home conditions, with the assistance of the research staff of Whittier State School, revealed deplorable facts concerning the methods of living. In some cases families of ten persons live in two-room shacks. The average "home index" was found to be 9 points, which compared with the average of 17 points for the home of delinquent boys, suggests extreme social hazard.

Temperamentally, according to Miss Henry, the Mexicans are "a very emotional people when they are together, but usually stolid and phlegmatic as the proverbial Indian when they are with people of other races." They are fond of music, and in this quality may lie some suggestions for their education.

Most of the Mexican men are engaged in ordinary labor, which brings from two to six dollars per day during employment. They seldom enter the skilled trades or professions.

Intellectually the Mexican children are consistently inferior to American children. Abbreviated Binet tests of 70 children showed an I. Q. range of .43 to 1.06, with a median of .72. This implies that average Mexican intelligence is comparable to that of high grade moron or borderline cases among Americans. This is not due, evidently, to the language factor, but appears to be real native inferiority. The results of the tests are substantiated by school status, economic and social progress, and other factors. The reviewer recently re-



ported similar conclusions with reference to delinquent Mexican boys. Miss Henry finds that about one-third of the children brought before the juvenile court in Santa Ana are Mexicans.

The outlook is dubious, at least so far as present methods are concerned. Special classes or special schools, with assignments and courses of study based on psychological tests, are among the most promising suggestions. The same laws in regard to morality, Miss Henry thinks, should apply to aliens and citizens.

Superintendent Cranston and the people of Santa Ana are to be congratulated upon their efforts toward solving this problem. (J. H. W.)

**Haberman, J. Victor.** *Memory (The Mnemologic Phenomena) in Relation to Intelligence, Pedagogics and Psychopathy.* Reprint from Medical Record, May 1919, pp. 42.

The question is raised whether in order to measure memory it is necessary to test severally each of the memory phenomena, attention, infixing, association, retention and recall. From the pedagogical standpoint the question is answered by a discussion of the different learning and ideation types. The conclusion is drawn that tests both of immediate and deferred recall should be used, with the preference if there be any, on the side of the deferred memory tests (conspicuous by their absence in the Binet series and the Yerkes method.) From the psychopathic standpoint the discussion concerns the mnemologic variations accompanying abnormal conditions. Here tests used by different experimenters for determining power of retention and reproduction are described and the differences between the performances of normal and pathological subjects brought out. The article concludes with a brief description of the author's arrangement of tests for the probing of the several memory functions. (J. M.)

**Hull, Clark L. and Bertha I.** *Parallel Learning Curves of an Infant in Vocabulary and in Voluntary Control of the Bladder.* Reprint from Pedagogical Seminary, Sept. 1919. pp. 272-283.

The subject of this experiment was a healthy normal female infant. Training was begun during the 8th month and careful records were kept from the 11th to the 32nd (lunar) months. The resulting curve is like that of the usual learning curve for skill and for the simpler mental processes. Its most striking characteristic is a long plateau beginning at the 18th and continuing through the 27th four-week period. This is most plausibly accounted for by the coincidence of the early stages of talking with the beginning of this plateau. The curve for acquisition of vocabulary is in striking contrast to the first. It begins slowly and increases at a progressively more rapid rate as far as investigated. It is more like the type of curve found in analytical learning such as Ruger found with puzzles and the author with evolution of concepts. No real words were spoken until the end of the 17th month. At the end of 2 years there were 129. The vocabulary for the 28th month, comprising 500 words, is given. (J. M.)

**Moll, J. M.** *The Feeble-minded.* Johannesburg, South Africa. pp. 13.

From a far corner of the earth comes this reprint of the address of Dr. Moll before the Child Welfare Conference at Durbar. It reports the work that is being done in this field in South Africa. The findings with reference to percentages of feeble-minded among institution children are strikingly similar to

the findings of American investigators. Dr. Moll's percentages are as follows:

Langlaate Orphanage.....	6 per cent.
Paarl Girls' Industrial School.....	12 per cent.
Heidelberg, Emmasdale.....	7 per cent.
Standerton Industrial School for Girls.....	12 per cent.

The investigations in reformatories revealed as high as 25 per cent feeble-minded. Dr. Moll recommends fuller surveys of institutions and the establishment of psychopathic clinics in connection with the juvenile courts throughout the Union. (J. M.)

**Preston, Josephine Corliss.** *Vocational School Laws of Washington.* Published by the State of Washington, Dept. of Education. Olympia, 1919. pp. 13.

A compilation of the laws enacted at the 1919 session of the legislature. One act deals with the establishment of the machinery for the promotion of vocational education and one with the establishment of part-time schools and the defining of conditions under which attendance therein shall be compulsory. Minors in districts where part-time schools are maintained must attend school until the age of 18 unless they are high school graduates or are in a part-time school and are complying with all acts regulating the employment of such minors or unless they have been excused from school in accordance with certain other provisions of this act. Penalties are provided for employers, parents or guardians who violate these laws and it is made the duty of the regular public school attendance officer to see that they are enforced. (J. M.)

**Pintner, Rudolf.** *Community of Ideas.* Reprinted from *Psychological Review*, XXV-5, Sept. 1918. pp. 402-410.

An experiment "to demonstrate the existence of a high degree of likeness in the association of ideas of individuals when placed under like conditions and to measure the degree of this likeness in a number of instances." Three classes of observers took part—(1) university students, (2) school children aged 13 and above, (3) school children aged 12 and below. Twenty stimulus words were used, color, furniture, flowers, letter of the alphabet, metal, etc. Subjects were asked to respond to each word with a particular word of the class to which the stimulus word belongs. The striking points in the results seem to be (1) the narrow range of variability in the responses, (2) the great similarity between children and adults and (3) the stability of the frequency of the percentages. *Furniture* called forth *chair* in 80 per cent of adults, in 70 per cent of children 13 and over and in 66 per cent of younger children. By using the percentages attached to each word as the score for that word, 70 papers were scored on the first 10 words for the degree of "community" shown by each. The highest possible score would be 536 if the most common response were given for each of the 10 words. Of the 70 papers thus scored the highest was 473. The median for adults was 407, for 13-year olds 400, for 7-year olds 174. (J. M.)

**Toops, H. A. and Pintner, R.** *Educational Differences among Tradesmen.* Reprint from *Journal of Applied Psychology*, III-1, March 1919. pp. 33-49.

An inquiry into the relationship between the amount of a man's education and the kind of position that he holds, based on reports from 924 tradesmen belonging to 30 different trades. The medians for the three classes show journeymen to be



less well educated than either apprentices or experts. The journeymen group includes, of course, those who will later become experts but also many who are "doomed to be journeymen all their days." Only 14.9 per cent of journeymen have more than an elementary education while 27.8 per cent of experts have at least some high school education. A boy's chances if he leaves school before the 7th grade are greater for remaining a journeyman. After the 7th grade his chances for becoming an expert gradually increase until for the college graduate they are 4 to 1. The men reported upon were trained mainly in the shops. This takes longer than should be necessary for the average man. A saving of two or three years time could be made by giving school shop instruction during apprenticeship. (J. M.)

**Toops, H. A. and Pintner, R.** *Mentality and School Progress*. Reprint from *Journal of Educational Psychology*, X-5, 6, May-June, 1919. pp. 253-262.

An answer in terms of Yule's association coefficient  $Q$  to the question "Are there any conditions under which school grade may be taken as a reliable index of mentality?" A careful study of three schools, one of superior, one of medium, and one of inferior social status, 1723 children in all, brings out some interesting relations. Four grades or more retarded is a perfect indication of a mentality not higher than normal with possibilities in favor of at least backward mentality. Two or more grades advanced is a perfect indication of at least normal mentality with chances in favor of at least a bright diagnosis. The low indices are the result of the tendency of schools to retard normal or mentally advanced children. The question is raised whether it is better to increase the standard of the school so it will select the better endowed children or to keep it low enough to graduate the largest possible number of pupils. (J. M.)

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## PERIODICAL LITERATURE

**Mobilizing the Community against Juvenile Delinquency.** The work of War Camp Community Service has suggested the desirability of some organized effort in dealing with a community's delinquency problem and the value of coordination of effort of the civic and social resources to the end that there might be greater efficiency and less overlapping of organizations. The Prison Association of New York sought to formulate some simple, workable, cooperative plan for the reduction of juvenile delinquency by local community effort, as near the source of the trouble as possible. Certain axioms are given as the basis of effort. Delinquency is a local community problem and as such has to be combatted by the resources of the community. Large stress must be placed upon recreational, self-improvement and social service activities for the young. Although the community will need to develop its own leadership, it must be assisted by outside help and council. A sixteen page leaflet has been published by the Association listing one hundred questions which may be taken up by any local group as the basis of a home-conducted study of their problem in this field.—*Orlando F. Lewis*. Survey, XLIII-21, Mar. 20, 1920. pp. 765-767. (W. W. C.)

**The Juvenile Court of the Future.** This article summarizes the past and present methods of handling the delinquent juvenile in order that the discussion concerning future policies may be made more clearly. Two divergent views are



offered as plans for future Juvenile Courts. The first of these contemplates the abolition of the Juvenile Court and the substitution of a Department of Adjustment in connection with the city or county school system. To this Department shall be referred all children who seem "to present problems of health, of mental development, of behavior, or of social adjustment." The services of physicians, psychiatrists, psychologists, field investigators, recreational specialists, etc. will be required in order to meet the needs of this department. The second view emphasizes the importances of the Juvenile Court and recommends that a new institution entitled the Family Courts be organized which will include former Juvenile Courts and Domestic Relation Courts. The Family Courts will be divided into departments each of which shall handle one phase of the troubles of the home. In this way all problems of the child and home will be correlated and equal care will be given to cases of divorce, abandonment, bastardy, juvenile delinquency, etc. The same specialists will be needed as in the Department of Adjustment. The second plan excels the first in that, by retaining the work in the legal field instead of placing it in the educational field, it is possible to handle all home problems in one place and thus secure true adjustment of them. The writer suggests a combination of these two plans; the Department of Adjustment to be maintained by the schools in an effort to prevent delinquency and the Family Courts to handle the more serious juvenile problems which the schools were unable to prevent.—*Charles Hoge Ricks*. *National Humane Review*, VIII-3, Mar. 1920. pp. 43-44. (E. K. B.)

**Defective Delinquents: Prevention and Provision.** The problem of the defective delinquent has come to be regarded from the economic as well as from the humane standpoint. The day of considering every defective as "potentially delinquent" is passed. Now the problem of the defective has become a problem of behavior and brought in its train the slogan "catch them young." The first point of contact with the defective is the ungraded class. Hand in hand with the ungraded class and its previous mental examination of the backward school child should go to the mental clinic and adequate field supervision which will do much to prevent the development of delinquency. The provision for the defective delinquent entails the institutions specifically maintained for the care of this group of social misfits. Thus prevention means education along appropriate lines followed by adequate supervision and provision means the separate institution.—*Ethel Anderson Prince*. *National Humane Review*, VIII-2, Feb. 1920. pp. 26-27. (E. K. B.)

**The New Jersey Continuation School Law.** The continuation school law going into effect July 1, 1920, requires each school district in which 20 or more minors between ages 14 and 16, are legally employed to establish a continuation school. The purpose is to provide a practical type of education for boys and girls who have left the elementary schools and gone to work, by carrying forward and conserving the elementary education already received, with final aim of making good citizens and efficient workers to man the industries of the state. In the larger cities this work should be in its own building with its own corps of teachers, conducted during working hours largely on the basis of individual instruction. Subjects will be academic, shop, home economic, drawing and commercial work. \$400 per annum for full time services of each approved teacher for a period of 36 weeks will be allowed by the state, with an allowance from federal funds of one-half the salary of a director.—*Extracts from letter of Commissioner of Education to Boards of Education in New Jersey*. *School and Society*, XI-267, Feb. 7, 1920. pp. 177-178. (K. M. C.)

**The Protection of Children under New Swiss Penal Code.** This article deals briefly with the Swiss Penal code recently federalized and made to apply to all cantons alike. The new code penalizes the physical ill-treatment and the neglect or morally cruel abuse of a child under 16 years of age. White slavery is also dealt with. The law divides juveniles into three groups: (1) children under 14 years of age; (2) children between 14 and 18 years of age; (3) children from 18 to 20 years of age. The child under 14 years of age is not amenable to the penal law. The other two groups are handled quite separately. Noteworthy among the provisions of the code are the institutions for juveniles—the reform school and the reformatory. The former deals with cases less “morally depraved” than the latter which is maintained for juveniles guilty of a very bad crime.—*Alfred Silbernagle*. *National Humane Review*, VIII-3, Mar. 1920. pp. 48-49. (E. K. B.)

**Shall the Age Jurisdiction of Juvenile Courts be Increased?** An examination of physiological, psychological and social aspects of adolescence indicates that youths of 16 and 17 are still juvenile and should be dealt with as such. The desirable age demarcation with respect to any particular subject matter should be decided, not on the ground of precedent or analogy, but on the basis of the nature of the acts, the capacities of the children, and their relationship to society. While the circumstances vary with each individual instance, on the whole the cases presented by boys and girls 16 and 17 can be dealt with in the juvenile courts, provided the necessary equipment and machinery are available. However certain administrative problems are involved including the fact that it is a statewide problem, resources and equipment of juvenile courts would have to be increased, temporary detention homes provided for segregation, added probation facilities made, and greater institutional accommodations provided. While the change is theoretically desirable there are practical difficulties involved and the most urgent need is the establishment of a statewide system of county or district courts, be they juvenile or family courts, where juvenile cases, whatever the age limit may be, can be handled.—*Arthur W. Towne*. *Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology*, X-4, Feb. 1920. pp. 493-516. (W. W. C.)

**Probation—A Federal Need.** The criminal courts under the supervision of the U. S. Department of Justice have no power to suspend sentence or to use probation. A convicted person must be either fined or committed to a federal prison under law, no matter how young or amenable to reformation. A widely approved bill has been introduced into Congress providing for probation officers with whom the federal courts may place offenders on probation in all cases except those punishable by life imprisonment or death. Adult as well as juvenile probation laws are in force in all but fourteen states; the federal government should no longer lag behind in supplying this humane and rational system.—*Charles L. Chute*. *Survey*, XLIII-21, Mar. 20, 1920. p. 775. (W. W. C.)

**Special Disabilities that Contribute to Retardation in School Status.** School retardation is caused by special disabilities as well as by general mental deficiency. These disabilities include the inability to master reading, spelling and arithmetic as taught in the ordinary way. Children whose retardation is due to such disabilities are of normal intelligence. An instance is given of a child with an I. Q. of 1.26 whose school retardation was very serious owing to her apparent inability to learn to communicate intelligently by written language. Other instances are cited



which emphasize the need for the study and understanding of these mentally normal children who are otherwise lost to education by reason of special disabilities.—*Leta S. Hollingworth*. Ungraded, V-3, Dec. 1919. pp. 49-54. (E. K. B.)

**Mental Hygiene Lessons of the War.** The experience of France and England in the early part of the war showed the necessity for a separate organization in the Medical Corps to deal with neuro-psychiatric problems. Accordingly, when we entered the war, pressure was brought to bear by civilians with the result that Dr. Thomas W. Salmon became the head of this new work. With the exception of the regular army units and some of the National Guard units, the entire American Expeditionary Forces were examined. Some 68,000 men were rejected for organic nervous disease, insanity, feeble-mindedness, epilepsy, or as being possessed of a definite neuropathic predisposition. As the result of this elimination there existed a low rate of suicide and crime among the A. E. F. There were altogether 120 suicides in France and 1,731 prisoners. On the basis of the experience of the army of 1915 the rate should have been 1,120 suicides and 240,000 prisoners. That the low figures of the A. E. F. are due to the mental health of the army is undoubtedly true. The care of the insane in the army showed marked progress, despite the relative unpreparedness of the medical profession as a whole along neuro-psychiatric lines. The division neuro-psychiatrist diagnosed the prodromal stages of mental disease, and because of the early treatment, returned approximately 65 per cent to duty. It was estimated that the number of soldiers brought to the advance field hospitals with a history of nervous disorders, ranged from 3 to 12 per cent of the total casualties. This work, originally forced into the army by the National Committee for Mental Hygiene, is now being carried on in the form of army plans for the "care of mental disease and the special psychiatric training of its medical officers as would have seemed preposterous two years ago."—*John T. MacCurdy*. *State Hospital Quarterly*, V-2, Feb. 1920. pp. 205-220. (E. K. B.)

**After-care Study of the Patients Discharged from Waverley For a Period of Twenty-Five Years.** This survey was made by means of a circular letter to friends and relatives of discharged patients, followed by a visit to the family, the pastor, local officials, the police, etc. The data thus obtained were checked up in each case. Of the 1537 discharges during this twenty-five year period 646 were studied, the remainder having been transferred to other institutions, to other states, or could not be located. Of the 646, 470 were males and 176 were females. For the most part, those who did not succeed were cases whose discharge the School had strongly opposed. Of the 470 males, 197 have died or have given trouble, the remaining 273 living successfully with or without supervision. Of the 176 females, 86 have died or been admitted to other institutions; of the 90 at liberty, 52 are giving no trouble. Further analysis of success or failure is made with reference to marital condition, occupation, home conditions, etc. Some interesting data concerning the influence of "definite character objects" upon the success of the feeble-minded individual are given.—*Walter E. Fernald*. Ungraded, V-2, Nov. 1919. pp. 25-31 (E. K. B.)

**Plan for the Organization of a State System of Social Service.** A paper read before the Department of Public Welfare in Illinois, September 29, 1919. A plan



for a state system of social service is offered. The district plan is favored over the institution plan. The former provides for the division of the state into districts based upon geographical and transportation factors. Each district is headed by a district superintendent who supervises and directs the work of the field-workers under him. Working in conjunction with these field-workers are the intramural workers of the various institutions. These latter workers reside at the institutions and use the district workers as informants during the residence of the patient or offender, forwarding to the district workers all this data upon the release of the patient or offender to that district. The plan makes possible greater economy and, more important, closer follow-up work. There is the additional favorable feature of the absolute disassociation for the patient or offender of the institution and life as it is again taken up outside. Furthermore, the field-worker, who thus acts as parole officer, knows her district, is thoroughly familiar with the industrial situation and so better able to place her charge. In addition, her localized effort will undoubtedly produce results in education and prevention.—*Harriet Gage*. The Institution Quarterly of Illinois, X-4, Dec. 31, 1919. pp. 5-10. (E. K. B.)

**School Records as an Indication of Mental Subnormality.** Several school reports whose content correspond closely with reports by psychologists suggested the use of routine school records as evidence of the subnormality of pupils. A scheme for rating deportment, proficiency, effort, regularity in attendance and relation of age to grade gave a numerical index of the substance of the school reports. Of 50 graded thus 2 rated below zero who, on further investigation, prove to be feeble-minded. A revision of the rating scheme gives a total possible score of 100 points from which on account of degrees of effort deductions would be made as follows: 5 for B, 10 for C, 15 for D; a total of 30 to be deducted under "proficiency"; 15 under "deportment"; under "times absent or late", deduct 5 points per absence or tardiness up to two times, 10 points for more than two. Deduct 10 points for each year of over age for grade, add 10 for each year under age. This plan gives special weight to proficiency while a total rating below 70 would call attention to the need for special consideration without being in itself diagnostic.—*Theron C. Stearns*. Training School Bulletin, XVI-6, Oct. 1919. pp. 93-96. (K. M. C.)

**The Economics of Child Welfare.** The point of contact between economics and child welfare lies largely in the standard of living. A study of incomes has revealed a very close relationship between an increase of the family and a change in expenditure. Every item of expenditure except food declines not merely in percentage but in absolute amounts with each addition to the family. This change in the character of expenditure necessarily changes the standard of living in those families where the income is insufficient to cover all needs and desires. Thus each addition to the family may mean a decrease in the money spent for clothes, for health, for educational advantages, for recreation, etc. The need for greater study along this line is thus indicated.—*Royal Meeker*. California State Board of Health Monthly Bulletin, XV-7, Jan. 1920. pp. 221-224. (E. K. B.)

**Who Is The Retarded Child?** The use of the word retardation as meaning over-ageness is subject to criticism; altho to the scientific worker it means simply the relation of the chronological age of the pupil to the ages of other pupils in the same school grade, to most people it implies that the child should progress at a certain rate determined by the curriculum, one grade per year, and is retarded if

he does not do so. The term was first used in 1905 coupled with a definition and the adjective pedagogical which made the meaning clear. "Overageness" would be an improvement altho not perfectly accurate. "Retardation" should be used to compare the progress of a person or object at one time with its own progress at another time, not with the progress of others. Proper educational use of the term in referring to the individual child would be to compare his actual progress with his potential progress. On this basis the normal and bright children would be found to be the retarded pupils. It is the duty of the teacher to see that each child progresses at his maximum pace. Real retardation should be measured in terms not of chronological age but of mental age. Since learning and education are psychological processes individual differences must be recognized by means of educational and mental tests; school administrators must study and where possible remove causes of hindrance and give the proper kind of work to fit the individual need.—*Arthur J. Jones*. *School and Society*, XI-270, Feb. 28, 1920. pp. 241-246. (K. M. C.)

**Value of Psychological Testing in the Public Schools.** A clinic with a staff of psychologists, physicians and social workers, to investigate and handle the misfits in the school system prove their practical value by making possible the segregation of the feeble-minded, handling the retarded but restorable cases, adjusting the work of individuals with specific mental or physical defects, advising treatment for disciplinary cases, discovering and pushing forward the supernormal child, and assisting all with true vocational guidance. To cover all this demands adequate staff and sufficient up-to-date equipment.—*Educational Administration and Supervision*, V-10, Dec. 1919. pp. 509-511. (K. M. C.)

**Educational Measurements and the Virginia School Survey.** Carefully prepared standardized tests to measure achievement in reading, spelling, writing, composition, arithmetic and algebra were given to 16,000 Virginia children, white and colored in both urban and rural schools. In general, the results show in urban schools satisfactory reading, low grade handwriting, poor performances in all four fundamental arithmetical operations. In all subjects the work of the rural one-room schools is decidedly inferior. Causes of poor work include irregular attendance, short terms, lack of well-trained teachers, too many one-room schools, no uniform standards, inadequate classification, lack of special classes for unusual children, and inadequate supervision. To make possible broader use of standard procedure in testing and classification the Department of Education of the University of Virginia has established a Bureau of Tests and Measurements. Educational tests will be used to set up definite standards with recognized objectives for the various grades, as well as to measure teaching and supervisory efficiency. Intelligence tests make possible the segregation of those who need to be in special classes either for faster or slower progress.—*Educational Administration and Supervision*, V-10, Dec. 1919. pp. 498-501. (K. M. C.)

**Trainability of Defectives Classification Sheet.** Too often tests at entrance are not satisfactory as an index of the eligibility of applicants for the particular type of care and training offered by schools. The Training School has devised a scale for rating the trainability of their applicants basing judgments on information rather than test data. One urgent need emphasized in the selective process is for the provision of institutions for near-delinquents or the socially mal-



adjusted group—"a half way house between the reform school and the institution for the feeble-minded." The classification sheet calls for 5-point ratings on age, self-help, abilities (industrial, educational and mental), nervous condition, habits and temperament, and physical condition.—*S. D. Porteus*. Training School Bulletin, XVI-10, Feb. 1920. pp. 180-184. (K. M. C.)

**A Standardized Information Record.** In place of the generally used information blanks of many institutions with large numbers of questions and uncertain usefulness, the Vineland Department of Research submits an attempt at a systematized selective record form with the purposes that (1) information for scientific inquiry and that for the institution's immediate use be separated; (2) all be in one folder organized for statistical summation and graphical presentation where possible; (3) scales of development be used with the folder, and (4) the contents include records of physical, psychological, educational and industrial development and the medical, personal and family history of the individual. Page 1 is for summarized information indicating various capacities, with a psychogram. Page 4 shows details of the laboratory examinations. Page 2 contains scaled ratings of school, industrial and character capacities. The industrial scale is both of the relative standing of the various occupations and of the steps within the occupations. Page 3 is an attempt to systematize the records of family history and the medical examination of the child, points being deducted from a total possible score on account of various defective conditions reported. Analysis of the information thus recorded proved that 80 per cent of that obtained by other methods is included and that the other 20 per cent is largely irrelevant.—*S. D. Porteus*. Training School Bulletin, XVI-6, Oct. 1919. pp. 103-111. (K. M. C.)

**"Scattering" in the Binet-Simon Tests.** Amount of scatter is one of the quantitative and qualitative differences in reactions between normal and feeble-minded children to the Binet-Simon scale which constitute important aids in the diagnosis of borderline cases. In general, mental defectives scatter more than normals. Method of proof is the determination of what percentage of cases in any chronological or mental age group of subjects pass any one, two, three, four, or five tests at each Binet-Simon mental year. For this work a restandardization and rating according both to mental years and to difficulty was made on selected normal children with I. Q. range .90-1.10, 15 to 20 at each age. Median scatterings for mental ages 5 to 10 were computed for both normal and feeble-minded cases. The greater scattering of the feeble-minded found arises from the fact that the standard order of difficulty of the tests for normal children is not the order of difficulty for mental defectives. Qualitatively and speaking broadly the tests which put a premium on memory processes or experience are easy for defectives while those which involve new adaptations or abstract judgments are characteristically hard. A brief scale for rapid examination has been standardized which emphasizes differences between normals and feeble-minded.—*E. A. Doll*. Training School Bulletin, XVI-6, Oct. 1919. pp. 96-103. (K. M. C.)



# The Journal of Delinquency

Volume V

JULY, 1920

Number 4

## ROSALIND'S DIARY

A STUDY IN TEMPERAMENT OF A SOCIAL MISFIT

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The case of Rosalind came to our attention in 1914 when, as a last resort, it was decided to send her to the Minnesota School for Feeble-minded. The series of events which culminated in her arrest and commitment to the care of the institution together with the bare outlines of her family history illuminated somewhat the startling paradoxes of the diary, which covers a period of only a few stormy months in her demimonde career.

Rosalind was the second born in a fraternity of five—four sisters and one brother. The oldest sister, now married, is reported to have been "somewhat wayward" before marriage. The sister next younger than Rosalind was very stubborn as a child and much harder to control than Rosalind; was "very wayward and immoral" and not as bright as Rosalind. She became pregnant by a "man much younger than herself"—went to a maternity hospital in Minneapolis where her child "died young." The sister is now studying to be a trained nurse. The younger sister is a very bright girl and a good student. The brother, the youngest of the fraternity, is also very bright.

The father was for many years postmaster in the small town where they lived. He owned and published a weekly paper but succeeded in making only a meagre living. He is a man of little force and has always been a moderate drinker.

The mother died at the age of thirty-seven of tuberculosis. She was a woman of average intelligence, described as being slovenly in appearance. She was the only girl in a family of eleven, her brothers are all successful business men, well thought of in the community. As a girl she was very hard to control and is reported to have been incorrigible in her girlhood. She was fond of going to

rough dances where she met very inferior men—would stay away from home for days at a time with such men. But after her marriage she seemed to behave.

Rosalind was graduated from the high school of the small town which was her home at the age of sixteen, having finished the course in three years. Her mother had died when Rosalind was eleven years old, and she and her older sister kept house for a rather pusillanimous father subject to no supervision until a stepmother came into the home. The stepmother, a superior woman, failed in her efforts to curb the wild habits which Rosalind had acquired and, when not allowed to run the streets, Rosalind left home without parental consent at the age of eighteen.

Her devious path is hard to follow from that time until she appeared in the city which was the scene of the beginning of our acquaintance. We have only her own story of her course which is usually so highly colored that it is impossible to discriminate fact from fiction except where we have been able to verify it by referring to the places and persons mentioned. An unsuccessful attempt to study nursing was her first venture. The sisters at the hospital where she went "could do nothing with her", and she was dismissed after four months' trial. We hear of her again at a state hospital for the insane where her attempt to study nursing terminated again in her dismissal after a few months. The escapade which culminated in her discharge was her first real moral delinquency and I use "moral" now, in reference to sexual morality only. She was "seduced", she says, "by an old friend of father's, a traveling salesman." She spent several days with this man at a hotel in a neighboring city and was dismissed from the hospital on her return.

From this time on she led a very precarious sort of existence. She was employed in various places but never held a job more than a few months at most. There is a record of her being a patient at the M....city hospital where she attempted suicide by taking bichloride of mercury. No motive for such a procedure has been deduced. Her own accounts of her life are so imaginary that it is quite impossible to follow her. She tells of being a laboratory assistant to a prominent nerve specialist in his work at the University of..... Dr.....refutes the statement. However it was accomplished, she made the acquaintance of medical students at the university with which intimacies the diary deals.

The immediate train of circumstances leading to her arrest and



final commitment to the institution follows. She went to the finest hotel in the city and told a story, convincing in the manner of telling, that her father was a Federal inspector of military posts; that she herself had been a medical student at a university in California, but while performing some laboratory experiments, had been the victim of lead poisoning, and had had to come East in search of health, journeying thither with her father in an automobile. On account of the cold weather which had overtaken them, she had decided to make the rest of the trip by train and had left her father in Dakota to come on with the car. Her father would arrive in a few days. She remained at the hotel four days and ran up a bill of eighty dollars. Telegrams to her father and others purporting to be from him saying that he was delayed, evidently allayed any possible suspicion. She entertained university men students lavishly while at the hotel. On the fifth day she went out and did not return and the matter was put into the hands of the police.

After leaving the hotel, she went to a home for working girls and told them the same story in such an impressive manner that she was allowed to stay over Sunday without the usual references required of the girls, and on Monday her departure was coincident with the disappearance of a gold watch and chain and several other small articles of jewelry.

Rosalind made no effort to conceal her whereabouts and was shortly arrested. She admitted the hotel escapade and having stolen and pawned the jewelry. At her trial a woman interested in social problems, as she said, "recognized the girl as defective" and promised to be responsible for her. That responsibility proved too arduous and after some months of trial, she was committed to the care of the institution.

Her examination at the institution showed no physical defects or abnormalities except that before the removal of adenoids as a child, mouth-breathing had become habitual and the tendency still persisted in adult life. Her appearance was very unprepossessing, she was slovenly, rather heavy set, short and awkward—but how she could talk! Her Stanford-Binet intelligence quotient was 1.15. She passed the tests rapidly and accurately, with very little effort passed four of the superior adult tests and had a vocabulary better than the "superior adult" requirement.

She remained at the institution as an inmate two and a half years. During that time she ran away once but was unable to make a living



and was arrested in Chicago. She told again a romantic tale but returned voluntarily with the officer who was sent from the institution to get her.

The diary is self explanatory. It should be stated that she was never a prostitute in the sense of ever having received money for her delinquencies. It seemed to be rather a hectic craving for experience, for what, in another way of life Walter Pater sought—"the passage and dissolution of impressions, images, sensations.....that continual vanishing away, that strange perpetual weaving and unweaving of ourselves." Only, being Rosalind, she chose the nearest and perhaps the only available way for her. So:

"She set herself, high-thoughted, how to dress  
The misery in fit magnificence."

(The diary begins, apparently, during an attempt to reform.)

*March 13, 19—*

I suppose I might start this diary out as something of an entirely new era. Anyhow I am a new, new girl! The Old Campus Riot is taking a rest—and "faith, she needs it." Today called up the (fraternity house) driven by sheer loneliness—and J\_\_\_\_ told me that the Chink had gone to the hospital with diphtheria, and that the house was quarantined. I also wrote a cross little note to Hal—I care for him so, that it is relief even to scold him. I talked to Madge of him tonight—but my heart got so full that I could hardly speak, and I just lay my head on her shoulder and sobbed. Hal! Hal—I am so unhappy. I hope this diary isn't going to degenerate into an anguished wail for my boy. I won't have it so—I won't, but I do hope God will take care of him for me. My new friend Mr. T\_\_\_\_ brought this book to me—and I am very grateful to him. Everything has its compensations, you know, and he is mine. Madge's Jack is quite struck by my "cleverness" and the Greeks are my humble slaves. I am not happy—I never expect to be again. But the world is kind—Good night.

*March 14, 19—*

Today start in at G\_\_\_\_'s (city department store) and how I mean to make good. Wish me luck—all you people who have cared for me—and I shall need your prayers as well as your good wishes.

(The next entry, addressed to Sancho, was torn out with the evident intention of posting it.)

*March 14, 19—*

Dear old Sancho: Last season one of the big New York successes was a play called "Officer 666." It closes with the heroine telling the hero, "One hardly would think such things could happen except in a play!" And the hero answers, "It couldn't." But things are sometimes strange—tho true, Yes? No? Tho I didn't start this letter as a commentary on the oddities of life in general.

I want to talk sense if I can. How is Hal? How has his last year

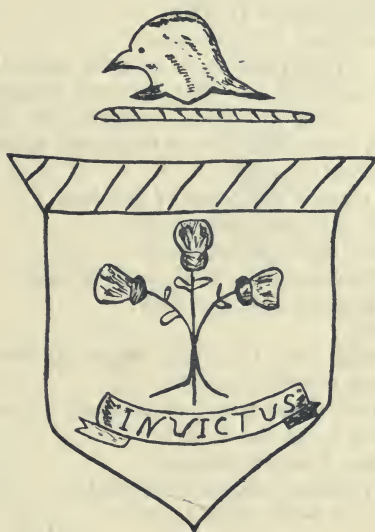


Fig. 1. \*

"Invictus"

"It matters not how high the gate,  
How hedged with punishment the goal,  
I am the Captain of My Fate!  
I am the Master of My Soul!"

in college panned out? Is he hurt? You—I am trying to write sensibly—but I cannot seem to make it. I do hate myself today. I'm glad to be out of it all. It was cheap and common. Two or three cocktails—sufficient intoxication to overlook some glaring defects—a little obscenity disguised as wit—and an adjournment to the chapter

\*The designs are reproduced from Rosalind's original drawings in the diary.  
Fig. 1. Frontispiece.



house! How you must respect yourself when you recall how tragic you could get over a *love-God* save us!—impelled, by the mere presence of one—anyone would do—of the “female of the species” and two absinthe frappe’s. You and I are a most nauseating pair—we even make ourselves sick! And yet I am honestly afraid I still love you. Do let’s be careful and never make such fools of ourselves again!

Bob.

*March 19—*

A ship passed the harbor at night  
While the quiet boats were sleeping—  
And turned to the open sea—as if on a far course keeping—  
A song came back with the wind, over the waters winging.  
A song with a burden sweet—as of sailors afar off singing!  
“Break, break from thy moorings of sin and despair,  
Thou in the harbor sleeping!  
Peace that is there is the peace of the dead  
Death with the years comes creeping!  
Hail! Thou that sleepest!—Awake!—  
Cast off thy moorings and swing to the breeze!  
Sail with thy God the wide open seas!

Storms thou shalt meet that shall temper thy soul—  
Ever thy heart’s strength trying!  
But far at the end is the gleam of the goal,  
And glories well worth the dying!  
Hail! Thou that sleepest—Awake!—  
Swing free thy anchor—dip to the breeze!  
Sail with thy God on the open seas!”

A ship reached the harbor at night, where the quiet boats were resting—  
Returned from the open sea—the star-linked billows breasting.  
A song came over the sea—over the wild waves winging  
A song with a burden sad—and sweet—as of sailors afar off singing!

I’m afraid this doesn’t all express the idea. It’s my best, however. Do you get it, dear? Or shall I ever know!

(But work in the department store “went finely” only for a day. And the next entry dated only a few days later is written from a cell in the county jail whither Rosalind had been sent pending the decision of the court in regard to her theft of the watch and the settlement of the eighty dollar hotel bill which the daughter of the Federal inspector had contracted while waiting for her imaginary father.)

March 26, 19—

Dearest dear— A fellow like myself is fortunate in having any friends at all—that they are mere “fairweather” friends hurts—but it’s not their fault, you see. I myself am just full of a newer ideal—the pal that sticks through thick and thin and to quote the hack-



Fig. 2.

neyed joke—“there aint no such animal.” In other days I would stake my life on the fidelity of Perc—or Hal—or you. But experience proves that when a voice is heard in Ramah—Rachel usually mourns alone. I am not complaining of this, dear my soul—only commenting on the fact that does more than anything else to make earth the hell that it is. Today Madge K\_\_\_\_ debonnaire and sweet—looked into my cell for a few minutes. Mrs. B\_\_\_\_ was with her. I cried. I used to be the clever one of the class of 1911. Now—I just wish to



be dead—that's all, just finally, quietly dead. And there will be nothing of happiness for me until I am. "Dust unto dust—and under dust to lie, sans wine—sans song, sans singer and sans end!"

Mystical Mother of all—on whose broad bosom I am resting—  
Hear Thou my broken heart's plea; hear Thou my weary soul's call—  
Hard, my bark wrecked by despair, the pitiless billows I'm breasting  
Grant me a little aid—O—Mystical Mother of all.

Over thy face is a veil of green sea mist,  
Only thine eyes shine like stars—bless or blight me,  
I will cling fast to the leash on thy wrist. O! Aphrodite!  
Carest thou not that thy child hath drunk deep of the chalice of sorrow,  
Is thy heart withered too, with an unresting onslaught of pain,  
O! Mystical Mother of all—help me to that bright Tomorrow  
Wherein souls—"weary still" unto death, may by Thee, be strengthened again.

Thou in the East, and I here in the West  
Under our newer skies, purple and splendid  
Wilt Thou not call the sad spirit to rest—  
By peace attended?

Mystical Mother of all—a broken down spirit is calling—  
Calling to Thee from the mazes of sinstained and desolate years,  
O! let Thy mercies descend, like the petals of roses soft falling,  
Into a broken vase—Comfort me—dry my sad tears—

*March 27, 19—*

Dearest girl—It has come to me here all alone—that perhaps it is better as it is—perhaps all things should be as they are. This is not accounting for the hours of heartache we endure—it is merely trying to see the best in this thing which has come upon us. If I were only sure—but I'm not, and I never can be. For I'm going to be afraid all my life long. Life is hard sometimes.

My home people are so dear to me—Dad and you especially. But I can never go back to you—never. There are our kiddies to consider, you know. I am trying to be optimistic—but I'm just breaking all in pieces—and I do so want you all. Last night the woman in the cell next to mine woke up late,—and started to laugh. She is very bad and she has a lot of little children—but she laughed and cursed a long time. "God is no good," she said over and over again. I'm not so sure she was not right. Dear—you don't half understand—no one does. The long days and hours of fear and then the blankness—and now the unceasing dread of the future. For I

will never dare to trust my responsibility again. I have been insane—doctors who knew me have said it—I do not believe it. How can I know—how will I ever know anything again? I think these things and I almost rave. And only God knows how I wish to be dead.

*April—, 19—*

My dearest—Have just finished a letter from Dot, which asked



Fig. 3.

Maude Adams in (inside?) Chantecler.

of you and goes on—"or don't you see him any more? Somehow, little sister, I hope you don't, for he's not good enough for our clever little Bob." etc.—more on the same strain. I read it and then read over an old, old letter from you—"Your're clever and sweet and dear as they make 'em—but you 're not straight. If you 're in earnest about caring for me as God knows I do for you,—you can make me very happy—if you 're not, for God's sake be sport enough to say so—and give me a chance to forget. For I love you—and when I see the utter hopelessness of it all—I'm just a kid again, and I put my head down on the table and cry." Hal, darling, I don't see how I



could hurt you so. I never meant to kill your love for me, I prized it so and do yet—that life is just one long agony of loneliness. A hopeless loneliness, too—for you'll never come back. Be a little lenient, dearest of men—for I, too, have suffered. And I want, as I never wanted anything before, to be:

Your friend,  
Rosalind.



Fig. 4.

*April 6, 19—*

I thot a long time, dear—about the psychology of this thing—and it doesn't seem to have an answer. I had friends by the dozen once—but now I'm alone. Perhaps I'm built that way—that it's my nature to meet all crises alone. I can't tell this. All I know now is that I'm bitterly unhappy.

I think of you, my Dot—when you first found it all out. How your loyal heart must have ached for me. And I know you wanted to try almost anything first.

Dear little sister of my thankful heart—I can't tell you what you have been to me. You and Dad and my boy are the Trinity I have

enshrined in my Holy of Holies. And the temple is unworthy, I'll always keep you clear in my heart's sanctuary—for I love you—you all with the best and noblest love I am capable of—and I want you every hour of the day and night. When I think how I have lost you



Fig. 5.

My Left Hand.

P. S. (My Right hand looks a lot like it—but I had to draw my left—for I never do what's right.)

all—I wonder at the pain that the Children of Men must sometimes bear.

(The attempt to place Rosalind in a home, under supervision, having failed, she was placed in Dr. James' Sanatarium. There follows another series of entries in the diary.)

April—19—

Am at Dr. James' Sanatorium for N. M's and well—I can't write. Dad was here and he took me to see Dr. James *to have my ears treated*. And he never looked at my ears at all. Not that it makes any difference. But this is the last jab Fate can hand me. Nothing matters now—absolutely nothing. Hal could help a little—and I do hope he'll do it. But if he doesn't care to I'll not mind.

God—if there is such a Being—I wish You would see your way



Fig. 6.

clear to helping me to help myself a little. "Not for myself alone"—but I do wish you would be a little kinder to Hal. Don't let him become like me, 'cause he can do some good somewhere—if he tries! I am so utterly useless.

Hopeless longing. I am at the end—I can endure no more.

Dear Lad— The enclosure is that design you wanted—really an appropriate idea for the L.... coat of arms—as the family is exemplified by the very attractive scion of the house, I know. Of course, Hal, I am not criticizing—it ill becomes the pot to comment on the exceeding blackness of the kettle! It is too silly of me to have lost your address—but I shall have the orderly look it up for me.



How are things at the frat? Trust the Chink has been restored to you. A dear chap that same and I know you missed him. This is clever (?) sarcasm. Was so sorry to hear of your late misfortune. Of course, I understand that all such investigations are always accidental—but with your “prophylactic technique” I am surprised! I’m not so sure the bottle on the crest should not be labeled “Argyrol.” But now I’m mean. I’m actually sorry, boy, and it was sportsmanlike of you to tell me.

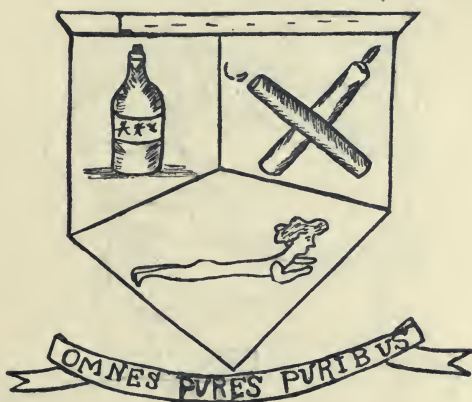


Fig. 7

Field—gules  
 Quarters—three  
 Devise—  
 Flask rampant  
 Cigs.—argent  
 Girl—couchant  
 Motto— To the Pure, etc.  
 (Coat of Arms drawn for Hal—)

Really, Hal, Perc has been most kind. Look him up at the frat house and two such good fellows ought to know each other. He doesn't draw a home check—I tell you this to avoid a possible bad play—but you'll find him a man worth while.

You'll write soon to make sure of finding me—will you not? And do be careful dear boy, you know how that sort of thing pans out in the end. And you're too worth while to waste—that way. That little prayer I gave you is worth remembering—try it sometime. My love to you.

Rosalind.

The dear—Back to the pencil again—and you'll laugh when I tell you why. Sunday night, I took the bars off my window—unscrewed the bolts with a nail file. It was easy—they were on very loosely. Then I leaned way out and the screen came unfastened. Truly boy—misfortune pursues me. Down to the enticing bosom of Mother Earth, that screen has to drop, one corner of it making a dent in the head nurse's window en route. Up comes old K\_\_\_\_ making war medicine to beat the cars, and madly intent on getting



Fig. 8.

X. Object of interest.

another paleface scalp. I was standing near the open window, laughing at my fool luck, and the "Child of the Open Air" immediately gets the impression that I intend following the screen. Inflamed with a praiseworthy desire to do her duty at any cost she rings the bell violently for help, and comes at me like a Carlisle tackle at a practice dummy. Totally unprepared, I went down like a log, while K\_\_\_\_'s war whoop rang out triumphantly. Soon my room was packed with anxious subalterns, who soon had me trussed up like a partridge, and strapped safely to a bed—screwed to the floor—in a room marked "Violent"—over which a sign forbids nurses to brave the fury of the caged madman alone. Some hero or heroine conceived the brilliant idea of emptying my ink—on a table near the window—impartially over the melee. It was a brilliant

strategic move, and added much to the warlike aspect of the fair K----- And, too, it is a satisfaction to know that even in the crisis of such a perturbed comedy—these little decorative touches are not



Fig. 9

Splendid specimen of the genus *Homo*—Class—*Peanutus Tinhornus*. Common on the Campus.

*This can vote!*

Formerly claimed to be fatal to the female species, having a serious effect upon the heart. This, however, has been disproved.

forgotten. I have the interne under my thumb, so he brought me my book and tablet. He made a remark about “complying with rules” etc. I said, “What?”—Just that one word, but he shriveled. He has a wholesome respect for his job—so usually leaves the “bawling out” process to someone else. But he needn’t worry—I won’t tell on him—I guess he has the ordinary “medic stewed” amount of susceptibility, anyway. And I sure do say a lot of bitterly mean things to him.



I can just see the hats of the people who pass here, from my bed. If I were Arnold Bennett, I would write a brilliant bunch of epigrams about hats. But I'm not Arnold Bennett. I am just a worn out "loidy" with sore ankles. And no one in their senses—would expect anything brilliant or epigramatic from:

Dr. James' Prize Bug,  
Rosalind.

Dear old man:—So sorry to hear of the accident to your right hand. Cheer up it's sure to be O. K. and you'll beat old man Lister at surgery yet. What?? No accident!!! Then why haven't you written me??? (Business of freezing looks,—cut direct—etc.) You ought to tho—Perc—just live up to your reputation as a knight—"sans puer et sans reproche." I am actually beastly lonely. You have my love—distribute the edges to the "masculine Mary-Annes"—but keep all you want for yourself. And that, I fancy, won't improverish

Rosalind

Dr. James' Prize Nut.

*April 18, 19—*

If all the stars that gleam above,  
Could tell their tales of mortal love—  
The love they feel for us below—  
O then you'd know— then you'd know!

Or if the moon her limpid beams  
More kindly on true lovers beams.  
She'd tell my secret—soft and low  
And then you'd know—then you'd know.

But star and moon are silent still—  
They cannot tell the love I feel—  
And my heart still in silence glows—  
But still you know—you know.

*Good Friday*

I have just sent you a letter, dearest of men. I hope you will overlook its childishness of expression—and see the depth and sincerity of the appeal in it. I read a story once for you, Hal—about a small boy and a Pierrot, at a circus. I cried about it and its memory—once we took a small boy to a circus. There were other things—do you remember?

A long time ago Christ was crucified today. Crucified today body and soul—for all the love He bore to Mankind. And it was the ingratitude—the hate men had for Him—who loved them all—which caused Him His bitterest pain. Still He forgave them, and prayed for them—and bore the cross for them—because they in their ignorance, did not comprehend the love which had brought Him to suffer on earth, for them. They could not grasp this miracle of self sacrifice—their hearts could not feel such a depth of affection—and He prayed for them—“Father, forgive them. They know not what they do!” “And on the third day He rose again.”



Fig. 10.

The Kind They All Fall For.

Thus, sometimes, our souls are crucified. And the deepest pain is ingratitude—love scorned—self sacrifice disdained. And men know not what they do! Yet, were the Jews not made desolate because of their sin? And shall men, who crucify their brethern—shall they go unpunished? Will not every tear shed for their cruelty be paid for with their heart's blood? “An eye for an eye”—and the bleeding hearts must be healed—and the battered souls be made beautiful again!

Christ “descended into hell”—and thus these souls drag out their lives in agony. But worse still is the lot of their persecutors—“they shall be withered like grass!” God pity them—and us. God pity all who are crucified—who descend into hell—and who have no hope of a future resurrection.

And on this Good Friday—when you died for us—hear thou my prayer, O wounded Christ! Teach me to forgive them—make me gentle—guard my boy, and let me die! I can do no more. “It is finished”—and I can endure no more. “Lord save me—I perish!” Amen.

(The following entry addressed to Hal had been torn out but, for lack of opportunity apparently, had never been sent.)



Fig. 11.

Masculine Mary Anne.

Dear, dear Hal— Such a dream as I had last night! I woke up cold with dread—for it was so real, that I can't forget it. I dreamed that you had flunked out—had been dropped even before the finals. O, boy I do hope you are working hard—at chem. in particular. You know how we believe in you—all of us—and I'm not an obstacle in your path, now.

A year ago at this time we were cramming together—down on the “Billboard Walk”—and those were happier times than I have had ever; before or since. We learned a lot, too—didn't we?

It was just a year ago, Hal—but see how different everything is. You care for me still—and I for you—but the bitter helplessness of



it all is making us miserable. We were almost too happy—doubtless, if we accept Poe's theory—that's why we are having our bitterness now.

But don't you care, dear my soul,—we can live on our memories,—did we never have a minute of happiness together again. Think of the poor people who have dragged through long, weary, wasted existences, without one single joyful memory to urge them on—or one single blissful hope of happiness to cheer their path. Dear, we must be satisfied—we have lived twenty-four hours in a day. Just remember that day—last April—when from 7 A.M. to 7 A.M. the next day—we owned the world. Then, too, we should be thankful to God for the remnant of good sense left us. Suppose we had been married that day. Think of the endless hell we would be enduring now. O! we have much to be grateful for. Of course we have our little rubs. My worst one is remorse. And never seeing you—hurts. But I know best.

No, I haven't seen Dr. W----or Perc or good old N----. Neither have I seen Dr. W----since that last time with you. D---- has been ill, and now for the love of Mique—let's drop that well worn subject. You know where I stand and I refuse to discuss it further.

Finally—yes, I love you,  
Rosalind.

I read this over—in the twilight of a lovely day. That's when that tear fell on it. "O—memories that bless and burn—O, bitter loss—" And I kiss each bead, often dearest—but the cross is still too heavy—too hard to bear. I was told today not to "make myself conspicuous if I could help it." God help me, Hal—I can't bear this—I can't bear it. And the way ahead is worse—be strong for me, dearest and hold me close—for I can endure no more. Help me, Hal—even God has forsaken me.

(Here follow about thirty quatrains from the fourth edition of the Rubaiyat quoted, evidently from memory with indifferent accuracy. In the main, however, she has followed the text with remarkable fidelity for a memory reproduction, as:

Iram indeed, is gone with all his rose,  
And Jamshyd's sev'n ringed cup where no one knows,  
But still a ruby lingers in the wine,  
And still a rose beside the water blows.  
For—  
But still a Ruby kindles in the Vine,  
And many a Garden by the Water blows.)

Dear Dad—I wish we didn't beat around the bush so—I think we must be the most inconsistent pair at large. This, however, is my "platform" and I don't know of anything that can ever make me change it. I won't go back to L\_\_\_\_. I am not going to merely wait until you send for me—for to say that I am out of patience with this idea of watchful waiting is putting it mildly, and I don't feel the need of any assistance outside of ourselves.

Do you know the assurance of almost any social worker, is absolutely amazing? Today a wierd little man, who really has a pretty kind heart under his impossible neckties—asked me if I was "happy." This seems to be a stock question for a social worker. Odd—isn't it—but then that's a fine chance to spill platitudes. To get back to Pa Van Loon—his real name is X\_\_\_\_he was here last summer and he also appeared in N\_\_\_\_to give his professional opinion—to the effect that I had "no control of my emotions" etc.—quite forgetting his own personal danger if this were true—the emotional nature of an Irishwoman at such a time—being a wild desire to scratch his eyes out. But he knew—Oh yes—he knew, he had "had me under observation"—he had spoken to me twice—but an experienced social worker can tell by the set of your eyes, whether or not your grandfather fought in the civil war.

It is the memory of the time I have spent here—because of a few old ladies, who didn't have enough legitimate business of their own to attend to—and who are still not wise enough to know the difference between interest and interference—I don't much care whether I go home or not. For, though I do remember and realize the trouble and shame I have brought you—and shall be sorry for it as long as I live—it seems that even ordinary friends would want to know what a school or sanatorium was like, before they committed another friend to it.

It is the idea that you left all this to mere strangers, whose fad for she next week was probably Pekinese dogs—and who never cared tince to write me a single word—after breaking my life in little pieces—what I did before I was feeble-minded—all this as unconcernedly as if I were a hat they were buying.

It isn't as much the misery of the past, as it is the uncertainty of the future, that bothers me now. And if I seem a little haughtty, dear, please remember, that my little home is the one ideal—the one hope of happiness I have left. It seems such a lot to me that I don't care to try it until "every hill has been brought low—every way made straight."

With much love,

Rosalind.



April—19—

I am going out soon for a walk—they tell me—but God only knows where it will end. How I hope and pray that this *walk* won't add to my pain—or to Dad's. Did I tell you Lucretia was dead? Poor Dad, what a lot he must have to bear. And I am going to F---- (institution for the feeble-minded) and I'm trying to be as happy about it as I can, though I do really hate the idea. I can't see why God doesn't let me die—I am so miserable. I'm such a burden to the rest. O, do let me die—or make life easier for me. I can endure no more.

I feel like the man who, being told of his wife's death—the loss of his home by fire—the foreclosure on the mortgage on his farm—and his own approaching demise as a result of a railroad accident; could think of nothing to say except "Well, this is too ridiculous."

Methinks this wine that I have loved so long,  
Hath done my credit in the world great wrong,  
Hath drowned mine honor in a shallow cup,  
And sold my reputation for a song!

Old Omar Khayam,  
Wise old Tentmaker.

With all its cheapness and its literary faults, with all its overdone sentimentality, the diary remains a document of profound psychological and literary interest. Her keenness of insight into the situations she describes, her self analysis and rather whimsical philosophy of life are added to a native facility of expression to narrate a highly colored mode of emotional response to situations only in part imagined. Though she is emotionally excitable, easily aroused to activity of feeling, she has no illusions about these emotional values. Her "I can endure no more" is swiftly followed by a caricature or characterization of the emotion which indicates a sense of its exact valuation. Sanguine, she might properly be called in the old classical terminology of Wundt. Her responses to emotional stimuli are characteristically quick and weak. But there is always a balancing sense of humor to offset the outburst of sentimentality. And why, then, could she never succeed in "managing herself and her affairs with" what the social workers with all their assurance, consider "ordinary prudence"?

Let us consider what she has done since she "was feeble-minded." She was discharged from the guardianship of the institution as an unfit subject for such an institution and was given work as a custo-



dial teacher where she was under the supervision of a directing teacher. Though she had been taught during her stay in the institution to do excellent hand work, she failed to teach the most elementary of it to the group of feeble-minded girls assigned to her. Her failure consisted in carelessness both in supervision and of judgment of results. If her pupils made net laundry bags, the knots slipped and the bags were useless; if they made sheets, the hems were not turned evenly and the threads were never securely tied and so it was with all she did as a teacher. While she was still teaching, she became pregnant by a young man who was employed as a transient day laborer in the town. She married this young man for convenience and has lived with him since. I say "for convenience" because she seemed to have very little emotional response for him and has much the stronger personality of the two. He is a baggage checker, now, in a city depot. Rosalind has cared for the child that was born to them and for the two or three rooms where they live. For two years her housekeeping and her little daughter have held her. The man is in no wise a person to stir her imagination or satisfy her craving for rhapsodical emotional heights. While the actual response of the class—"medic stewed"—over which she sentimentalizes was not all that she interprets it to be, yet here was an actual link with the reality which she craved, though to "burn always with a hard gem like flame" amounted to no more than the smoky flares of a very cheap candle.

Will she stay with him, true to him thus fulfilling the conventional success in life? Shall we pigeonhole our Rosalind under the caption "A Soul that Found Itself?" Perhaps there is enough of the Rosalind in us to admit:

"Our interest's on the dangerous edge of things.  
The honest thief, the tender murderer,  
The superstitious atheist, demirep  
That loves and saves her soul in new French books—  
We watch while these in equilibrium keep  
The giddy line midway: one step aside,  
They're classed and done with."

Rosalind has been variously diagnosed as a "defective delinquent," a "conative case of mental deficiency," a "control defective," a "moral imbecile," and just "feeble-minded." And all these words with which we clothe our ignorance make our assurance, "under our impossible neckties," none the less amazing, and Rosalind by the means no nearer "classed and done with."

## THE TWENTY-FOUR HOUR SCHOOL

FRED. C. NELLES

*Superintendent, Whittier State School*

The case comes to court only when the other educational forces break down—when the school fails with the child; when the church fails; when the parents fail.—*Judge Cabot, Boston Juvenile Court.*

We ought not to have to wait until a child passes the delinquent line to give him a decent training.—*Judge Mack, Chicago Juvenile Court.*

While I recognize the fine influence exercised in elevating the standard of the spirit of self-discipline at Whittier, yet the stigma in the public mind is on all reformatories, and the child who has simply the misfortune of being poor ought to be permitted to have the benefit of state aid, without any aspersion on his character to hound him afterwards.—*Joseph Scott, attorney. Formerly member Los Angeles Board of Education.*

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The foregoing quotations representative of what may now be considered the prevailing opinions of persons professionally interested in the welfare of children. Educators, physicians, psychologists, court officials and social workers in nearly all lines have been brought abruptly face to face with the necessity for a broader conception of our responsibilities toward the children who are drifting into our juvenile courts.

The history of provision for the wayward child takes us successively through the "House of Refuge," the reformatory, the industrial school, and the probation system. Each of these has contributed to progress, and no one could dispute the greater superiority of present methods over those of two generations ago, in which, as Dr. Snedden<sup>1</sup> tells us

.....no matter what they had been committed for, they received the same treatment and according as they were big and little, the same classification. So, into one of two great divisions the boy was herded with several hundred other boys, without respect to their power for good or bad, and without regard to their want of training.

When bed time came he was taken to a large cell hall, for decency's sake called a dormitory; in each hall were from 150 to 200 narrow cells, 5x8x6, tier on tier, with a single barred slit in one wall called a window and in the other a grated iron door fitted with a padlock or brake. .... Behind the bars of his prison-cell the boy often gave way to his feelings in an agony of remorse and fear, and thus, amidst the shouted taunts of his companions he fell asleep.

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1. American Juvenile Reform Schools. New York, 1907. p. 14.

When the reformatory came it meant progress, because it was a recognition that custodial children are entitled to be segregated from adults; the industrial school went a step farther, and made trade-training the basis of treatment; the probation system went still farther, and provided means for the wayward child to have "another chance" under court supervision, previous to his commitment to an institution. But all of these methods, it will be observed, makes it necessary *for the child to be wayward* before his case receives any recognition at all.

Even with the limitations of our present system there has been surprising success. Young men and women whose needs were not met by their homes nor by the public school, and who failed repeatedly on probation, have been made useful and efficient citizens through the 24-hour training of the state industrial schools. The success percentages range probably from 40 to 70 per cent. At Whittier State School during the last biennial period the department of research reported 72 per cent of the boys paroled during that period to be "doing well" or "doing fairly well". This indicates that they were successfully operating, although handicapped, and were at least keeping out of trouble and minding their own business. Such records are gratifying, in the light of the serious difficulties in the way of training these boys who come to us under commitment, and from every conceivable social, economic, and intellectual group. They come to us only after the home, the school, and the probation office have successfully passed them on as not responsive. The state may never pay its debt of gratitude to the good men and women who have faithfully labored to develop these cases of prolonged delinquency into productive citizenship.

But this sort of success is dependent, in a large measure, upon the neglect of the children in their pre-delinquent stages. Among all of the boys who have successfully responded to the Whittier plan, there is probably not a single one who would not have responded better to a similar opportunity provided in connection with the public schools, several years before his commitment. Moreover, nearly every one of these boys, as their histories now show, were evidently yielding to the conditions which caused their delinquency, when they were pupils in the public schools. These statements are based upon the recent findings of our department of research. Dr. Williams, in re-



porting a recent school survey by the research staff<sup>2</sup>, sums up these findings as follows:

There are 700 boys and girls in the three industrial schools of California, and perhaps a thousand more in the custody of the local juvenile courts. Most of these children are commonly termed "delinquent" because of the undesirable trend of their misguided, or unguided, energies. These children attended the public schools, and their histories show that their condition was evident when they were regular school pupils. Their teachers recognized them as being "headed for the court," and in some instances special efforts were made to prevent the necessity for court procedure. The best that could be done, however, was to keep their cases out of court until delinquency had developed. The essential factor in the treatment—continuous supervision—was unobtainable.

One need not search far into the opinions of modern educational authorities to find the prevailing conception of public education as the means through which every child, from every home, may receive effective training suited to his individual needs and the probabilities of his future development. Professor Cubberley<sup>3</sup>, in his discussion of new educational conceptions, reiterates his often-expressed view that the public schools should become the agency for the solution of most of our problems which are related to the development and training of children. Referring to the need for making public school provision for all educable children, he encourages

... the provision of such a large number of different types of school opportunities that somewhere in the school system every boy and girl may find the type of education suited to his or her peculiar needs. Where this cannot be done locally, due to the small size of the school system, it should be done by the county or state. Otherwise compulsory education laws will only force children into schools from which they will get little of value and in which they will often prove troublesome, with a resulting increase of over-age children, refractory cases, and corporal punishment, and at the same time defeat the social and citizenship aim of the schools. It may cost more to train such children properly than it does the so-called normal children, but it is cheaper for society in the long run that the schools should do it.

Added to such opinions are the equally emphatic beliefs of social workers that the problem of child development is fundamentally an educational problem, and that the elimination of the social evils which now confront the public can be effected only when the public schools are extended to include the child who is unable to respond to the present 5-hour school day. The state child-caring agencies are

2. Survey of Pupils in the Schools of Bakersfield, California. Whittier State School, Department of Research, Bulletin No. 9, June, 1920. p. 41.

3. Public Education in the United States. Boston, 1919. p. 382.

almost daily finding children who come in this class. School principals and teachers often wish for facilities of an educational character to bridge the gap between the schools and the juvenile court. That it is necessary to either neglect these children entirely or turn them over to the courts is an interesting commentary on the scope of our public school system.

From parents, also, come appeals for state aid in helping them prevent their children from the waywardness which often results from inadequate supervision. Some of these persons even ask to use the present state school for this purpose. A letter received from a mother reads in part as follows:

I am writing in regard to placing my two boys in the state home at Whittier. I wish full particulars in regard to training, education, etc. I am a widow left alone with three children, and cannot go out to work and leave them alone to roam the streets. It is impossible for me to pay the prices asked by private families or homes for boys, as I am now a poor working woman making small wages, barely enough for myself and baby to exist on. I wish to get my boys placed where they will get good care and training so I can manage to get steady work, and not have them out where they will go to the bad and in all kinds of company while I am at work during the day.

To letters of this kind the state can only reply that its institutions are exclusively for children *under court commitment*. There is no other legal provision. The state has thus far established no training for non-court children who are not adapted to their homes or to local public schools. A working mother who cannot provide for her children must surrender them to the wardship of the juvenile court if she wishes to avail herself of the combined vocational training and supervision opportunities offered by the state.

Such, in brief, is the urgent call for educational preventive work. It is evidently a problem for the state to solve, or at least to give serious consideration. The state has already established schools for the children committed by the courts. Logically, its next step should be the making of efficient citizens of those children for whom the necessity of court experience can be prevented.

Out of these and other considerations, and with the co-operation and assistance of several agencies, there has developed the proposed measure known as the 24-hour school act. Its purpose is to authorize the care and supervision of certain children under educational influences for the entire 24 hours of the day, and for such a time as will insure the most efficient training. This would mean room, board, clothing, and education. It would be a combined home

and school, both features being required to meet accepted standards. It would be a place open to children, but without court commitment. The child's or his parents' liberties would not be taken away, but parent and child would become initial parties to the transaction. There would be no stigma attached to this procedure, for it would not involve anything akin to punishment. It would not deal with actual delinquency, but would serve to prevent delinquency by affording the right opportunities in time. There would be no more act of charity involved than is involved in the offer of other forms of public education to children, or in the provision of free text-books. Commissioner Claxton of the U. S. Bureau of Education writes:

The establishing of this school in California will be another step toward the complete recognition of the economic, civic, and human need for adequate provision for training for industrial efficiency, civic righteousness, and virtuous human life, every unit of the population—for saving every fragment of society.

The measure which is being prepared for presentation to the next session of the California Legislature is intended to embody the principles suggested in the foregoing discussion, namely, that children are problems in education; that the public school system should extend to certain children who are not reached at present; and that the state should recognize the need for preventive work, and take the initial steps to this end. The measure also recognizes the advantages of bringing about this development with as little disturbance as possible of existing agencies and equipment, and at the same time making a distinct advance in the desired direction. The co-operation of all agencies will be necessary to a full realization of the ideal 24-hour school. The salient points in the bill are as follows:

*Purpose.* The school is intended to provide for the attendance, maintenance, care, parental supervision, guidance, observation, study, and education of pupils admitted, together with such vocational, home economic, mental, moral, physical, and other care and training as shall tend to strengthen, develop, and fit them to become good and useful citizens; to co-operate with child-placing agencies in finding proper homes where they will be assured of suitable educational opportunities; to stimulate the proper care of children by parents; and to serve as a training school for teachers of special classes and special schools, thus extending the activities of the normal schools and universities into the field of special education. It will also provide a working laboratory for the study of problems related to child welfare.

“It is declared that the intent and purpose of this act is education-



al and preventive, and is in no sense punitive, and it is to be so interpreted and construed."

*Administration.* Provision is made for a board of five trustees, including the governor and the state superintendent of public instruction, *ex-officio*, and three other members to be appointed by the governor. The terms of the appointed members will expire in different years, making the board a continuous body. The trustees serve without pay, except that expenses are allowed within a limited amount. It is planned that the board shall be a non-executive, policy-forming body, and that its chief function shall be the selection of a superintendent.

The management and supervision of the school is vested in the superintendent, who is authorized to employ officers, supervisors, instructors, teachers, and other employees, and fix their salaries, duties, and terms of employment. The superintendent shall appoint a treasurer who shall be responsible directly to him and under bond for the performance of his duties.

*Teachers.* All teachers and instructors, including industrial and vocational teachers, are required to meet standards set by the state board of education, and their salaries shall be subject to the approval of that board. All other employees are subject to the provisions of the state civil service. It is required that the salaries of teachers and instructors shall at least equal that paid in the city public school systems for work of equal importance. It is evident that the efficiency of such a school will depend largely upon the quality of the teaching force, and that only well-trained or especially adaptable teachers can meet the requirements.

All certificated teachers in the school are placed under the teacher's retirement salary fund created June 16, 1913, and will receive full credit for teaching experience.

*Admission of pupils.* Determination of eligibility for admission to the school is vested in a committee of three members; (1) the superintendent of the school, (2) a member selected by the superintendent and the trustees, and (3) a member selected by the superintendent and the department of education of the state university. The committee members receive no extra compensation except necessary expenses. It is the duty of this committee to inquire into the case of each pupil recommended or applying for admission, and it is authorized to make a thorough investigation into the merits of each case.

There is also provided for each county one or more local advisors, appointed by the superintendent of the 24-hour school and the state board of education. The advisors serve without compensation, and act in co-operation with the committee on eligibility in the selection of candidates for admission. The advisors may also serve as the connecting bond between the community and the school, and may obtain reports at any time concerning the status or progress of pupils registering from their respective communities.

Any minor child above the age of eight years, with the consent of the person entitled to his custody, or with his own consent if there is no parent or guardian, may be admitted to the school, upon the terms agreed upon between them and the school, provided; (1) that the pupil has no parent or guardian; or (2) that the parental care or guardianship is insufficient;\* or (3) that it is demonstrated to the satisfaction of the eligibility committee that the pupil is in need of the special advantages of training and supervision which may be afforded by the school; or (4) that the pupil is not responding satisfactorily in the public schools. No feeble-minded, epileptic, or morally degenerate child can be admitted, nor can any child whose physical condition is such as to make him an undesirable pupil.

Any citizen, whether or not a relative, may file a petition with the committee on eligibility, showing that there is a child who comes within the provisions of the act, and requesting that the committee consider the advisability of admitting the child to the 24-hour school. Such petitions should contain a statement of the facts necessary to a thorough inquiry. After investigation, the committee may, if the necessary consent is obtained, recommend the pupil for admission.

Provision is also made whereby the child himself may make application for admission, upon stating his case to the committee on eligibility.

*Co-operation of local schools.* It is made the duty of every school principal to report to the city or county superintendent to whom he is responsible, on any pupil who, in his judgment, comes within the provisions of the 24-hour school act. The principal must present his report in writing, and in such detail that the superintendent may form an opinion as to the pupil's eligibility for admission.

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\*In case there is no parent or guardian, the court may name some one to act for the child. The consent of such person would then be secured for admission to the school. In such case no guardianship proceedings are necessary and the child does not become a ward of the court.

It becomes the duty of any city or county superintendent of schools to investigate, or have investigated, each case presented to him, and make appropriate recommendations to the committee on eligibility, either for or against the admission of each pupil whose name is submitted to him. The recommendation is expected to be accompanied by sufficient information concerning the social and educational status of the pupil for consideration by the committee. These provisions should serve as a basis for effective cooperation between the local public schools and the 24-hour school, and serve to emphasize the strictly educational nature of the act.

*Attendance.* After a pupil is admitted to the 24-hour school, whether through arrangements made by him or by his parents, he is subject to the regulations of the school in regard to his attendance. This will, of course, vary with different pupils. The intent of the act is to extend vocational training and supervision over a period of time sufficient to make the pupil socially and vocationally efficient. The school would probably have 1,- 2,- 3,- and 4- year courses. The act provides that leaving the school without permission constitutes truancy within the meaning of the compulsory attendance laws for the public schools.

*Courses of instruction.* The act requires that all courses of instruction be submitted to the state board of education for approval. It is intended that they shall be worked out with great care, and embody the best methods of vocational education and social guidance. The main divisions of the work would be (1) specific vocational training, (2) moral training, (3) physical development, and (4) regular public school instruction. In each of these respects the 24-hour school would have all of the opportunities afforded by the local public schools, with the additional advantages of continuous supervision and scientific classification. All instruction would be based upon evidences of the individual development of the pupils and upon the supplementary findings of the research staff.

*Maintenance.* The contract entered into by the parents and the state whereby a pupil is admitted to the 24-hour school, provides for maintenance payments to be made by the parents. In case there is no parent or guardian capable of meeting these payments, it is provided that they be met by the county from which the admission is recommended. These county payments are not to exceed the amount paid by counties toward the maintenance of juvenile court wards in state institutions.



The act requires that the parents or guardians shall not only make maintenance payments, if they are able to do so, but that they shall also endeavor to assist the pupil, maintain an active, helpful interest in his welfare, and make every reasonable effort toward finding him a suitable home or employment, in cooperation with the school. There is no release of parental obligation, except for the training itself.

*Research.* The 24-hour school will be an excellent laboratory for the study of problems relating to child welfare. The findings of this research laboratory would bear closely upon the work of all public schools and institutions. The fundamental causes of juvenile delinquency, which the 24-hour school would tend to prevent, could be studied nearer their source than is now possible. The investigations required by the committee on eligibility, using trained workers, would furnish abundant data for the analysis of the social, educational, and economic conditions which make some boys and girls fail to respond to the regular public school procedure. Many problems in vocational education in relation to intelligence and social factors could be studied under the most favorable conditions. The variability of the pupils attending the school would make it possible to experiment to great advantage in problems of individual instruction.

*The training of teachers.* As a practice laboratory for the training of special teachers and social workers, the field of the 24-hour school would be unexcelled. Here would be a selected group of pupils who are on the border zone of successful careers, but, under the ordinary conditions, in danger of slipping into social inefficiency. For teachers to be experienced in the guidance of these pupils might result in untold value in the lives of the other boys and girls with whom they would later become associated.

Prospective social workers could also find superior opportunities for practical training in the study of social problems in association with an experienced research staff.

*Location of initial 24-hour school.* Obviously, it will be necessary to begin by the establishment of an initial 24-hour school by the state. In accordance with the policy of putting the plan into effect with as little disturbance of existing institutions as possible, and at a minimum cost, it is proposed to utilize the present buildings and grounds owned by the state at Whittier. There are several reasons why this step is both desirable and feasible. It has been pointed out for several years that the plant at Whittier is not as well adapted as

formerly to the use for which it was originally intended. Although an industrial school has been maintained successfully on these grounds, the school has labored under serious handicaps incident to the rapid expansion of the population in the vicinity of Los Angeles. Originally an isolated farm tract, about two hour's drive from Los Angeles and a mile from the city of Whittier, it is now entirely enclosed by populous sections, is but twenty-five minutes from Los Angeles, and the city of Whittier extends to the very doors of the school. Running along the east boundary of the property is the paved state highway connecting Los Angeles and San Diego, one of the most extensively travelled automobile roads in California. Directly through the property runs a branch line of the Southern Pacific Railroad, dividing the grounds at a serious disadvantage to both effective working conditions and supervision. The Whittier line of the Pacific Electric Railway, running fifty cars a day, intersects the highway at this point, and has established a station at the front gate. Public bus lines run additional vehicles each day. The freight yards of the Southern Pacific and Salt Lake railways are within a block of the school, and three busy packing houses are just across the street. Two other packing houses, employing scores of young girls during the canning season are actually within the boundaries of the school property. It will be obvious to persons experienced in institution management that these conditions do not produce the best atmosphere for a state industrial school dealing exclusively with wards of the juvenile court.

On the other hand, some of these conditions are favorable to work of a strictly educational character. The proximity to centers of population will be desirable and advantageous. Isolation and segregation being no longer needed, the 24-hour school will welcome the social contact with other schools, and working relations with the growing industries of this region. The proximity to educational institutions in Los Angeles is desirable from the standpoint of the proposed teacher-training and research work. The opportunity for parents to keep in touch with the progress of their children will stimulate this important element. As a center for special educational work the site at Whittier offers splendid attractions.

The buildings on the Whittier property are especially adapted to 24-hour school purposes. Changes in the educational work of the state school during the past eight years, together with the change in the juvenile court law limiting admission to younger boys, have



called for buildings of a different character from those required for strictly reformatory or industrial school purposes. The plan of the school centers in a group of attractive cottages, suitable for small groups of normally responsive boys, and a group of spacious shops for trades-training. In fact, the whole trend has been to emphasize the equipment necessary for the education of the responsive boy, and the idea of the 24-hour preventive school has been an inspiration in planning and developing these buildings. That the state has consistently approved the plans is an indication of the receptive attitude toward preventive work which has been met in all branches of the state government.

The unsuitability of the Whittier site to industrial school purposes has been recognized officially in legislative acts. In 1913 legislation was enacted which limited commitments to Whittier State School to boys under sixteen years of age. This has assisted in bringing about an educational atmosphere without the stricter methods necessary for the retention of older boys. The Legislature in 1919 authorized the board of trustees to sell any portion of the state property at Whittier, with a view to using the funds toward the purchase of a rural tract for state school purposes. The intent of this act is the removal of the institution for juvenile court wards, so that the present Whittier site may be used for strictly educational work. The framers of this bill had in mind the advantages offered by the present site for the 24-hour school. The bill providing for the change was signed by Governor Stephens May 27, 1919.

*Provision for additional schools.* The desirability of 24-hour schools for certain boys and girls will probably become increasingly evident with the development of the initial school. In fact, several communities have already considered the matter, and will welcome the results of the experiment by the state. It is planned to make adequate provision for the establishment of local 24-hour schools, which may have the co-operation of the state and the benefit of the general organization which would thus be effected. The state 24-hour school could become the parent of these local schools, and eventually supply teachers and principals for them. Such an organization could render services of incalculable value to the state, through the more efficient guidance and education of the hundreds of children who are now being ineffectively dealt with at the most critical period of their lives.



# The Journal of Delinquency

Published bi-monthly by Whittier State School

WHITTIER, CALIFORNIA

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Entered as second-class matter March 27, 1916 at the Post Office at Whittier, California, under the Act of August 24, 1912. Acceptance for mailing at special rate of postage provided for in Section 1103, Act of October 3, 1917, authorized August 3, 1918.

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Vol. V

July 1920

No. 4

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## THE PREVENTION OF DELINQUENCY

In this issue of the *Journal* Superintendent Fred. C. Nelles discusses the proposed "twenty-four hour school", an educational measure which he has advocated for several years. The plan calls for the establishment of a state public school for the education and moral training of exceptional children, to serve as a preventive of juvenile delinquency and for the encouragement of good citizenship. Those of us who have been associated with Superintendent Nelles, and the many others who have followed his progress at Whittier during the past eight years can easily understand the development and logic of this constructive suggestion.

Eight years ago the Whittier plant housed an industrial school of the old type. Although a number of intelligent persons were deeply devoted to its welfare, and were constantly and sincerely endeavoring to bring about improvements, the "reform school" traditions had become so deeply embedded in the fabric of the organization that serious obstacles were met on every hand. The basis of employment was wholly unstandardized. Little or no provision had been made to meet the educational problems. The state had not yet recognized the importance of the vocational training and guid-

ance which are necessary to the return of delinquent boys to society. There was no scientific classification, no method of differentiating the intelligence groups, no recognition of the prevalence of the higher grades of feeble-mindedness which resulted from miscellaneous and inadequately investigated commitments. The school was operating on the congregate plan, a single massive building housing nearly all of its activities, from the hospital to the classroom. A rigid military system prevailed. Several forms of corporal punishment were often administered. Boys and young men of all ages, from eight to twenty-one, were received. In some cases almost mature men, through false testimony as to their ages, had been admitted to the school, resulting often in the serious moral degradation of boys of tender years. From the investment point of view the state was beginning to ask for a better accounting of the thousands of dollars appropriated for institutional work.

Introduced into this atmosphere, Mr. Nelles became deeply conscious that there was something fundamentally wrong. The state was spending its funds, the boys (some of them) were being retained, but the sum-total of results indicated small returns on the investment. The school was not preventing delinquency, seldom correcting it, and in some instances contributing to it. Whether these facts were characteristic of all the industrial schools of the country, or whether California was suffering from more than its share, was a debatable question; but in either event it was apparent that there was need for reform. As a beginning, Mr. Nelles made some immediate changes in the policy of the school. Corporal punishment, including the use of the "Oregon boot", was abolished. A better segregation was effected for the younger boys. Plans were formulated to make the girls' department a separate institution, eventually to be removed to another location. A close personal contact was established with the boys, and most of the boys responded. Expert advice was sought for the different activities of the school, and improvements were made as rapidly as the circumstances would permit.

The fundamental wrong, as Mr. Nelles saw it, was that the state was paying too little attention to the problem. It was spending money as a necessary acknowledgment of an obvious and dangerous condition, but was avoiding the responsibility of seeing that the condition was corrected, or that something was done to prevent it. Some of the suggestions advanced as a result of his observations were:

1. That the state immediately institute a systematic study of its institution problems, with a view to the establishment of better methods of institution organization and administration.

2. That a survey be made of the population of the school, with a view to determining the mental and physical factors which should serve as a basis for effective scientific segregation.

3. That the congregate plan be abandoned, and replaced by a system of smaller (cottage) units of supervision.

4. That, as soon as possible, the Whittier site be abandoned for industrial school purposes, because of its unsuitability to the form of supervision required for dealing with court cases.

5. That the most obvious need is the development of preventive work; and that the attention of the state be directed toward the possibility of so connecting the idea of continuous supervision with public school work that the problem may be dealt with nearer its source.

Each of these suggestions has met with strong endorsement, and the institution problem is looked upon in a clearer light than ever before. There is a distinct trend in the direction of state institution organization; the girls' department has become the California School for Girls, now located at Ventura; the suggestion relating to a scientific survey of factors in individual development has resulted in the establishment of the department of research, through which the publication of this *Journal* is made possible; the findings relative to the prevalence of feeble-mindedness as a cause of delinquency contributed directly to the establishment of a new colony for the feeble-minded; the congregate plan has been entirely abandoned, and the cottage system, providing for proper age segregation, is now in operation; the Legislature has authorized the sale of any part of the property at Whittier, and the removal of the state school to a less populous region. This leaves the way open for the establishment of the 24-hour school, on valuable property already owned by the state, and without the necessity for a new appropriation. It only remains to receive legislative authorization for proceeding with the preventive school.

There are probably no differences of opinion among the readers of the *Journal* as to the desirability of preventing juvenile delinquency, nor as to the educational and psychological soundness of the plan proposed by Superintendent Nelles. Nearly every book and article on delinquency in some way deplores the lack of preventive means. Workers in all of the different fields in which delinquency is a prob-



lem are uniformly of the opinion that the solution lies in the direction of adequate supervision during the pre-delinquent period. Researches conducted at Whittier during the past few years have revealed no fact about delinquency which is more significant than that the public schools of California contain a group of pupils who are repeating, with pathetic conformity, the histories of boys and girls who are now wards of the juvenile courts.

It is to be hoped that the proposed measure will receive the vigorous support of all those who are desirous of improving human efficiency. (J. H. W.)

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#### IMPROPER USE OF THE I. Q.

To the Editor:

The reference to Dr. Gordon contained on page 70 of the May issue of this Journal was a misrepresentation of Dr. Gordon's argument as referred to. The author of the criticism recognized the misrepresentation soon after submitting his manuscript and requested that the reference be deleted. Through an unfortunate oversight the deletion was not effected. As a matter of fact Dr. Gordon's use of the I. Q. as referred to was entirely proper, being, in fact, in harmony with her critic's own position. The injustice of the reference is deeply regretted.

E. A. Doll.

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The editor of the Journal acknowledges receipt of Dr. Doll's letter in which we were asked to delete the paragraph referring to Dr. Gordon's article. Several other corrections which followed the receipt of the manuscript were made, but in the make-up the paragraph was inadvertently reinserted.

(J. H. W.)

## PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

**Abbott, Julia Wade.** *The Child and the Kindergarten.* Department of the Interior. Bureau of Education. Washington. Kindergarten Circular No. 6. Feb. 1920. pp. 28.

A plea for the kindergarten as a socializing influence, showing what is being done in our best schools to "teach children by children" and to keep intact all vivid, tingling interest and activity that the child of five or six brings with him when he leaves his baby realm and steps into the larger circle of his peers. Through play kindergarten children learn the give and take of social life and make those contacts with the real things about them which are to open the door to a new world. Differences in interest and maturity will be clearly shown in a group of five-year-olds. Leaderships develop naturally and spontaneously. The children learn by doing. The less stable child is unconsciously steadied and developed by association with his stronger fellows. Every effort is made to avoid doing things for the child, to keep hands off (the most difficult of all the teacher's arts) and to let him work out his own ideas. The circular, beautifully illustrated and charmingly written, should be in the hands of every one interested in children whether at school or at home or just anywhere. (J. M.)

**Burmeister, Marie E.** *A Study of Six Hundred Boys Committed to the Minnesota State Training School.* Minnesota State Training School. Red Wing, Minn. 1919. pp. 22.

An interesting report giving the results of intelligence tests, supplemented with data on physical conditions, history of conduct, home conditions, and school progress. Stealing, incorrigibility and truancy were the most frequently occurring offenses. The home conditions, graded by the Whittier Scale, were found to be poor, the median home index being 13 points. The score ranged, however, from 5 to 24 points. Of 100 homes investigated, 26 were found to be "pernicious," 30 were "weak," 21 were "fair," and 23 were "good." Parental supervision was found to be the weakest factor. The intelligence tests (Stanford-Binet Scale) gave an I. Q. range of .47 to 1.17, with a median of .79. The classifications are as follows: feeble-minded, 27.5 per cent; borderline, 24 per cent; dull-normal, 24.5 per cent; average, 23 per cent; superior, 1 per cent. The school histories suggest that maladjustment in school may be as important as low mental level in persistent delinquency during the adolescent period. The report is illustrated with interesting charts, and is a credit to the institution and to Miss Burmeister. (J. H. W.)

**Burnham, William H.** *Success and Failure as Conditions of Mental Health.* Reprinted from Mental Hygiene, III-3. July, 1919. pp. 387-97.

This pamphlet emphasizes the need for a more general understanding of the value of success as a stimulus to growth and an aid to satisfactory mental adjustments. The child first entering the big new world of school life stands at one of his greatest crises. Thus far, he has succeeded marvelously in his conquests over his environment. Now, in too many instances he is, by the very conditions and practices of our schools, doomed to failure. Both school and home should give opportunities for legitimate success. The application of the psychology of success

should take the sting out of worry. A worry fairly faced, met and analyzed may become of itself an occasion of success. In order to avoid chronic worry, both children and adults should be trained to live each day for itself and close the account each night. Most helpful is the insight that it is the doing itself which matters, that the battle of life is worth while for its own sake. Children need success in large doses. It is vital for the normal. The diseased are often cured by it. Teachers, physicians, social workers, must see that their charges have this stimulus. On these simple conditions the author insists, do our sanity and insanity our happiness, our association complexes and our characters, depend. (J.M.)

**Chicago Municipal Court.** *Report of the Psychopathic Laboratory.* May 1, 1914 to April 30, 1917. pp. 392.

A report from Judge Olsen's court, the psychopathic laboratory of which is under the direction of Dr. William J. Hickson. The preface states that the facts presented were "gathered as an incident to the annual outlay of nearly \$6,000,000 for the police department and nearly \$1,000,000 a year court expenditures for a city of two and one-half million people. They are expensive facts, therefore, that can nowhere else be gathered with the same facility. The five thousand policemen of the city act as agents in bringing material to the laboratory." The examination of cases includes the use of a miscellaneous group of mental tests, each subject being diagnosed according to the individual needs of the case. Combined statistics are presented on "intensive individual, criminalistic, psychiatric, psychologic, neurologic, hereditary, anthropometric, sociologic studies of 4468 cases." Of these 2025 were from the boys' court, 1275 from the domestic relations court, 947 from the morals court, and 329 from other branches. A large proportion of the subjects referred to were "clinically outspoken cases of defectiveness." A large number of case histories are given, with many pages of performances of subjects on the Binet design drawing tests. The usual proportions of mental deficiency were found, with a large additional proportion of cases showing psychopathic conditions. The report states that the work of the court is made considerably more efficient by the aid of the laboratory findings. (J. H. W.)

**Chisolm, B. Ogden.** *Making The Prisoner Over.* Reprint from The Evening Post Magazine. New York. July 26, 1919. Price 25 cents.

In this brief pamphlet, the author strikes the key-note of penal work-reformation as against retribution. He emphasizes the need for re-education in the matter of the prisoner's view-point and of initial education in such matters as the true concept of law and justice, environment and its relation to character, etc. The author's idea is the re-forming of the offender through kindness and more intelligent care. This would involve the elimination of the cell-block system and the unsuited prison attendant; in the place of these would come the cottage system and the attendant who believes in redirecting the human energies found in a group of prisoners. While the author points out the necessity for true reformatory work, he fails to make any reference to the need of a scientific study of each prisoner before this work in the building of moral character can successfully take place. How much more satisfactory might this work be if based upon knowledge of the intelligence and of the psychiatric, physical and neurological conditions of each individual. (E.K.B.)



**Committee on Home Economics.** *Budget Planning in Social Case Work.* The Charity Organization Society. New York. 1919. pp. 31. Price 15 cents.

This bulletin discusses in detail the principle involved in budget-making with instructions for securing the necessary information as well as for the preparation of the budget itself. "Budget planning," says this publication, "acts as a short cut to accurate thinking concerning a family or personal financial situation," and is primarily intended for the use of the case-worker dealing with dependent families. As such, it assists in determining income, its minute distribution and brings to light any fallacies in that distribution, as well as pointing out the amount and character of assistance needed. There are three steps in budget-making. The first involves the securing of necessary information, such as amount of income and its character, present and past, and present, past and expected future expenditures. These data should involve detailed information along every possible line and may be roughly grouped under: (1) housing and housekeeping expenditures; (2) food; (3) clothing; (4) expenses necessitated by employment; (5) expenses for health and personal care; (6) recreational expenditures; (7) educational expenditures; (8) payments assumed under definite obligations, such as church contributions, insurance premiums, etc. The second step is the preparation of the budget in written form. At this point the emphasis is laid upon the need for the individualization of each budget; it should be worked out with a view to requirements for the desired standard of living and the particular needs of family in question—not for an average family. The third step is the "utilization of the budget plan in securing desired improvements in the family's living standards." Obviously the most important factor in budget-making is the establishment of the "desired standard of living." This is a problem peculiar to each community and once set, the budget, as outlined in this bulletin, is the only accurate and fair means of determining the amount and character of relief needed. The suggestions offered for securing the desired information afford a basis of inquiry that could be used to advantage in other lines of case work and investigation. (E. K. B.)

**Doll, Edgar A.** *The Average Mental Age of Adults.* Reprinted from *Journal of Applied Psychology*, IV-4, Dec. 1919. pp. 317-323.

Since the publication of the Stanford-Binet Scale, there has been general acceptance of Terman's 16 year level as the average mental age of adults. Doll undertakes in this article to show that the findings of the U. S. Army tests tend to indicate that the average mental age of adult males is nearer 13 than 16 years. He has also applied the Army Alpha scale to juveniles in public and special schools, and his data seems to show a tendency for intellectual development to smooth off after the age of 13. He also emphasizes the importance of basing determinations of feeble-mindedness upon social criteria. There is, of course, a wide zone of borderlinity in which special data must supplement the tests. The reviewer concurs in the stress placed upon the use of social data. This is especially important in the study of delinquency and other forms of social variation. That the 13 year level by the Stanford-Binet Scale represents average-normal intelligence seems to the reviewer to be a rather sweeping contention. The average mental age of young adult delinquents in California is approximately 13 years. It is all but inconceivable that these should so nearly follow the normal intelligence distribution as Doll's contention would make out. It will be interesting, however, to test the hypothesis on the basis of more extensive investigation. (J. H. W.)

Dooley, William H. *Principles and Methods of Industrial Education—for Use in Teacher Training Classes*. Houghton Mifflin Company, The Riverside Press, Cambridge, Mass. 1919. pp. 257.

The sub-title of this volume defines its primary field of influence without fully indicating its possible values. The nature of the contents is such as to provide useful reference and stimulus material for the teacher after he is certified and at work as well as during the training period. As is stated in Professor Prosser's editorial introduction, the value of the book "lies in its compact summing-up of facts and principles, its 'sampling' of method and devices in organizing material for purposes of instruction." The general outline of the material involves exposition of, first, the general theories and the history of development of industrial education, then passes to more particular consideration of the technical organization and teaching of the subject matter. For the student or teacher interested in developing the problems of industrial education, the discussion questions following each chapter bring out factors of both theory and technique which serve to round out the text. The Appendix is particularly rich in practical suggestions for organization and courses of study. The discussion as a whole is intensely practical, yet productive of thought, since it not only outlines recognized standards of procedure, but also gives such data and illustrative facts as will stimulate the student to recognize the problems and work out his own solutions. The book is a valuable contribution to modern education. (K. M. C.)

Terman, Lewis M. *The Intelligence of School Children*. New York. Houghton Mifflin Co. 1919. pp. 317. Price \$1.75.

Following the publication in 1916 of Professor Terman's *Measurement of Intelligence* the Stanford-Binet scale has become widely adopted as the standard method of making intelligence comparisons. The author's valuable work in extending the Binet scale is now supplemented with a discussion of practical results which these tests produce. In the *Intelligence of School Children* he deals with the principles of intelligence testing, the amount and significance of individual differences, standards for grading by mental ability, tests of school laggards, the I.Q. as a basis of prediction, children of superior intelligence, intelligence tests in vocational and educational guidance, and practical suggestions for the use of mental tests. The chapters on superior children should be of great help to teachers and school principals in matters of promotion. There is a reason to believe that there will be less juvenile delinquency and more efficient instruction in the schools when intelligence is made the basis for school grading. This book should be in the hands of teachers, principals, supervisors, psychologists and educational directors who wish to keep abreast with the movement for better schools and more efficient pupils. (J. H. W.)

Warner, Amos G. *American Charities*. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co. Third Edition, 1918. Revised by Mary Roberts Coolidge. pp. 540.

A thorough revision of what Dr. George Elliott Howard in his biographical preface refers to as a "classic in philanthropy". The changes made include the revision of statistical data, the substitution of new tabular and graphic presentations, and the addition of 25,000 words of new manuscript. Especially interesting are the newer aspects of feeble-mindedness and dependency brought out. The belief is expressed (Chapter XII) that of all charity the work of the welfare of children



is the most hopeful. Experimental and research work, with saner points of view relative to the social significance of adequate child-caring methods, are crystallizing into constructive programs for institution management and individual supervision. When the state sees the necessity for the adequate training and guidance of every child, normal and abnormal, and when institutions are equipped for meeting the individual needs of their charges, "then we shall have a claim to being civilized." The chapter on feeble-mindedness (XV) is ably written, and speaks well for the revising author's knowledge of the subject. Sums running into thousands of dollars are annually being spent on forms of so-called charity which in reality is but contributing to the perpetuation of inferior mental stock. Delinquency, crime, dependency, prostitution and other social causes for charity can never be eliminated so long as we permit feeble-minded persons to reproduce their kind. In its revised form this book stands as a greatly improved standard work on the subject. (J. H. W.)

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## PERIODICAL LITERATURE

**Moral Conflicts and Juvenile Crime.** Psychological studies of criminals have thus far touched only the surface of the problem. Dr. Healy's study of "Mental Conflicts and Misconduct" explores the deeper causes. He is undoubtedly far too conservative in his estimate of the proportion of cases where mental conflict is a major or contributing factor. Delinquencies caused by conflict are important because they are unusually grave, are peculiarly recurrent and if taken in time are eminently curable. Above all they affect the finer, more sensitive and intelligent delinquents. The conflict is usually a struggle between a lower instinctive tendency and a social ideal. Sex instincts, experiences, ideas and habits are prone to be repressed and later to emerge in substitute reactions, truancy, stealing, destructiveness and the like. These acts are often compulsive. Punishment is ineffectual. Mental analysis should be undertaken and should reveal to the delinquent the origin of his delinquencies. Where a mischievous habit has been established there will need to be re-education. Dr. Healy's work is sane, unbiased and scientific. However much influenced by Freudian doctrines, his data, methods and conclusions are independent and based upon a thorough going procedure. Gratitude is due to Mrs. W. F. Dummer who made possible these studies at the Psychopathic Institute of the Juvenile Court of Chicago.—*Cyril Burt*. *Child Study* (London), XII-2, Dec. 1919. pp. 22-25. (J. M.)

**The Problem of Educability.** At two points the elementary school needs reconstruction. These points are the proficiency level of the first grade and the proficiency level of the working certificate. Every first grade pupil learning to read displays to the clinical psychologist and educator a measurable competency, partly organic, partly acquired. The use of clinical tests and measurements would eliminate the incompetent and save the enormous waste of time and effort that the present system of mass education involves. Clinical measurement is indispensable again at the 14-year level. The release from school now depends upon having reached the sixth grade or some other standard. A more scientific treat-



ment must be undertaken for children who are refused permission to go to work. There is need for a change in the attitude of the personnel of the schools. The orientation of the clinical psychologist must be accepted and workers trained to employ diagnosis at every step of educational progress.—*Lightner Witmer*. The Psychological Clinic, XII- 5-9, May 15, 1919. pp. 174-178. (J. M.)

**Emotional Instability in Children.** Some systematic observation of tendencies toward psychopathic personalities should be made by those giving mental examinations to children. For this purpose the questionnaire prepared by Dr. Woodworth for predicting the development of psychoses and neuroses in adults was taken as a basis and 60 questions formulated for children. These were given to 75 boys of the 5th grade in New York City. Forty of them were in a nutritional class, 35 in a control group. A score of 15 wrong answers was assumed to indicate a tendency toward abnormality. A score of 25 to warrant grave suspicions. The scores of the nutrition group ranged from 0 to 28, average 10.05. Twelve of this group (30 per cent) made a score of from 15 to 25, one, of 25 or more. Scores for the control group range from 0 to 34, average 7.14. Six of these (17 per cent) had from 15 to 25 wrong answers, one 25 or more. The questions were also given as a group test to 255 children, ages 10 to 18 in the vacation schools of Baltimore. Results there indicate an increase in instability with an increase in years. Several problems regarding these questions need more study but wrong answers to many of them, or the same information secured by observations of individuals, indicate emotional instability worthy of serious consideration.—*Buford Johnson*. Ungraded, V-4, Jan. 1920. pp. 73-79. (J. M.)

**A Community Program for Protective Work with Girls.** The morally endangered and the waywardly inclined girls are to be found in every community and will long remain a perplexing problem. Preventive and restorative measures should be applied throughout the country. A number of suggestions are made as to the steps to be taken with the girls of the Juvenile Court age. Under A, Preventive Measures are (1) alert community interest; (2) protection against family neglect; (3) checking incipient waywardness; (4) women protective officers; (5) housing, social life, recreation, and religion; and (6) sex instruction. Under B, General Protective Laws are (1) age jurisdiction; (2) borderline cases of neglect; (3) age of consent; and (4) community protection. Under C, Juvenile Court Inquiry are (1) non-court versus court cases; (2) preliminary investigation and Juvenile Court complaint bureau; (3) medical and mental examination; (4) Juvenile Court hearings; (5) temporary detention; and (6) women officials. Under D, Probation and Placing Out are (1) probation; (2) moving to other neighborhoods; and (3) placing in private families. Under E, Institutional Care and Parole are (1) institutional care; (2) custodial institutions for mental defectives; (3) hospital care for venereal disease; (4) investigation of applications for parole; (5) paroling authority; (6) parole supervision; and (7) placing out. Under F, Prosecution of Adult Offenders against Girls are (1) prosecution of adult offenders; (2) law enforcement against parents and relatives; (3) rape prosecutions; (4) needed reforms in handling rape cases; and (5) fines and capital punishment. Under G, Cases of Pregnancy and Child Marriage are (1) protection for pregnant girls; (2) affiliation proceedings; (3) medical care and maternity homes; (4) custody of the infant; (5) questions of marriage of pregnant girls; (6) control of child marriages;

and (7) marriage as a compromise measure in rape cases. Under H, Guardianship, (1) guardianship. Under I, Co-ordination of Effort are (1) cooperation of agencies; (2) the male side of prevention; and (3) family court. In view of the magnitude and seriousness of the girl-problem, and the marked interest aroused during the war may we hope that the country will wage a campaign in behalf of these girls.—*Arthur W. Towne*. *Social Hygiene*, VI-1, Jan. 1920. pp. 57-70. (M. S. C.)

**Protect the Moron.** The morons, for whom permanent segregation is urged by many, should be protected. Many "hard, unpleasant, monotonous jobs" are shunned by everyone, and yet are especially suited to the moron's ability, provided he is adequately protected from the contaminating influences of society which his suggestibility makes doubly dangerous. Rather than look for the ultimate elimination of the moron, let him be known and sent to a school for his kind where he may be protected and trained with a view to later returning him to society to perform these unpopular tasks.—*H. Addington Bruce*. Reprinted from the *New York Globe*, in *Ungraded*, V-3, Dec. 1919. pp. 71-72. (E. K. B.)

**Current Misconceptions Regarding Reformation.** No one may expect to reform who believes that (1) it is possible to do so without a long period of practicing reformation, and (2) that much help in reformation is available outside the offender's own thinking. The favorite metaphor used is "turning over a new leaf", and it is an unfortunate idea as it gives the impression that a simple act is sufficient to cover up the past. The first and essential step is a *feeling of regret* for the damage done oneself and others. The next logical step is the *intention to do better*, then *make a plan* for better thinking and acting. Offenders are usually several years forming bad habits, so it will take at least as long to unlearn the evil habits. In five years lived according to a good plan, one could learn a trade, advance a neglected education, form good associates, accumulate a small bank account, and advance far on the road to reformation. Reformation must be a self-wrought process. No reformatory or other agency outside the offender's own mind, can reform a personality, but they may indirectly assist in the uplifting. A modern reformatory is well adapted to prepare an offender for reformation which he must work out for himself just as a high school boy plans and works for his college course. Only the well equipped mentally may hope to succeed in self-reformation. The habit formation among the sub-normal may in some cases make them capable of returning to their families, after a sufficient term of training. At present there are no institutions of the kind above indicated for "defective delinquents", but before many years we shall have them.—*Guy G. Fernald*. *Mental Hygiene*, III-4, Oct. 1919. pp. 646-649. (M. S. C.)

**Better Statistics in Criminology.** Ignorance concerning crime and criminals in this country is appalling. We have no means of ascertaining the number of crimes committed, the number of arrests made, or the number of convictions resulting therefrom. For purposes of study we could first have a general survey of the country as a whole which would show the crimes, arrests and convictions. Second, we could show the effects of various methods of treatment on persons convicted of crimes. Third, we could study the causes of crime and the genesis of the criminal. Before statistics can be compiled much preliminary work must be done. A uniform adoption of the classification of crime by federal and state authorities must be accepted. Uniform statistical records and reports must be made.



A system of this sort to be successful must be handled by central statistical bureaus. Four years ago statistics on mental disease in this country were no better than present statistics on criminals. Success in this field seems to point the way for action in the field of statistics in criminology. *Horatio M. Pollock. Mental Hygiene, III-3, July 1919. pp. 453-457. (M.S.C.)*

**Mental Rating of Juvenile Dependents and Delinquents in Alabama.** A survey conducted in four industrial schools in Alabama at the request of the newly organized Board of Control and Economy. The investigation included the Alabama Boys' School at East Lake (307 white boys); the State Training School for Girls, at Birmingham (45 white girls); the Mercy Home Industrial School for Girls at Birmingham (30 white girls); and the Alabama Reform School for Juvenile Negro Law-Breakers, at Mt. Meigs (264 colored boys.) The children range in age from 7 to 20 years. According to age-grade standards, all but 8 of 304 children were retarded one or more years in school. All but 30 children were retarded more than one year. The application of group intelligence tests supplemented with individual examinations show a proportionate mental retardation, the proportions of feeble-mindedness being as follows: white boys, 14 per cent; white girls, 21 per cent; colored boys, 22 per cent. Practically all of those classified as feeble-minded or borderline test below the level of the lowest two per cent of unselected public school children. The group intelligence tests were found to be highly valuable in the survey, and to result in a saving of labor. The suggestion is made that the low ratings obtained for colored children may be due in part to the inaccuracy of data as to actual ages, or to the uncertainty of applicability of the Binet-Simon standards to the negro mind.—*W. D. Bartlow and Thomas H. Haines. Journal of Applied Psychology, IV-4, Dec. 1919. p. 291. (J. H. W.)*

**Three Cases of Larceny in which the Antisocial Conduct Appeared to Represent an Effort to Compensate for Emotional Repression.** In the lives of each of the three women described, all of whom were arrested for larceny, there is a history of much emotional disturbance. In the first case the girl because of the peculiar strain in her environment which became more oppressive than usual found an outlet in one antisocial act. In the second case, the actual conflict centered about the girl's married life; her difficulty in adjusting herself to marital conditions. She showed a strong objection to anyone exercising authority over her. It was shortly after her husband's attempt at controlling her that she started shoplifting which continued for 7 years. It represented an effort to gain satisfaction in expressing her ego by successfully defying the law. During her stay in the reformatory her interests were aroused in clerical and literary work so that she soon gained satisfaction in this way which assisted her to reconstruct her life along normal lines. The third case was a girl sent to the reformatory on the charge of stealing. In this case the girl's emotions had been aroused at an early age in a way in which she always associated with shame, which in later years caused sexual repression. Because of this the conflict expressed itself antisocially. The outlets which she chose seemed to furnish her in some way with an illusion of compensation. The future analysis of this case should be full of interest. In all three cases, had the mental life been accessible to wise guidance at an earlier period, the antisocial behavior might easily have been prevented.—*Edith R. Spaulding. Mental Hygiene, IV-1, Jan. 1920. pp. 82-102. (M.S.C.)*



## INSTITUTION REPORTS

**Connecticut.** *Industrial School for Girls.* Forty-eighth and Forty-ninth Reports. 1918. Caroline de Ford Penniman, superintendent. Middletown, Conn. pp. 41.

This neat, clearly written report gives one a definite picture of the work and problems of the School. Among the recent developments under the new superintendency are more frequent placements on parole, a regrading of educational work on the basis of educational tests, and the elimination of the feeble-minded from class instruction which greatly simplifies both teaching and management in the school rooms. However it is not stated whether those classed as feeble-minded were so designated by observation or as a result of intelligence diagnosis by the use of standardized tests. (W. W. C.)

**Iowa.** *Training School for Boys.* Twenty-sixth Biennial Report of the Superintendent and Sixth Biennial Report of the State Agent. June 30, 1918. W. L. Kuser, superintendent. Eldora, Iowa. pp. 76.

Of particular interest in this report is the statement of the physician and psychiatrist concerning self-abuse and bed-wetting. Of 449 boys examined and interrogated 90 per cent practiced self-abuse; of 460 examined, 78 boys were troubled with enuresis, which, under careful treatment, showed gratifying prognosis. A number of tables are presented in the report relative to parole work, indicating in general that about 72 per cent of the boys are succeeding. (W. W. C.)

**Massachusetts.** *Training Schools.* Eighth Annual Report. 1918. pp. 117.

This annual contains the reports of the two industrial schools for boys and the industrial school for girls in Massachusetts. Owing to pressure of commitments and inadequate accommodations the period of stay is being lessened to an average of about one year and greater reliance placed on closer parole supervision. The problems of feeble-mindedness are mentioned and Superintendent Campbell states that they should have the "services of a psychologist who can make such determinations as to mentality as are possible in a direct way, and also will be a man capable of assisting us in character analysis." Examinations of special girls' cases have been made at the Psychopathic Hospital, and the need of examinations in all cases is recognized. (W. W. C.)

**Maryland.** *St. Mary's Industrial School for Boys.* Fiftieth Annual Report. 1918. Brother Paul, superintendent. Baltimore, Md. pp. 60.

This report of one of the large Catholic industrial schools for boys contains many items of interest concerning the industrial training provided. During the year 1560 boys were cared for at the School and about a hundred more were kept in St. James Home for Boys where they live while working in the city of Baltimore. The views contained in the report indicate something of the loss suffered when practically the entire institution was destroyed by fire in April, 1919. (W. W. C.)

**Missouri.** *State Prison Board.* Biennial period ending December 31, 1918. W. H. Painter, president. pp. 268.

This report includes the usual statements concerning administrative problems and financial and social statistics relative to the State Penitentiary, Missouri Reformatory, Industrial Home for Girls, and Industrial Home for Negro Girls. In June, 1917 the new Prison Board was inducted into office and gave attention principally to the reorganization of the various institutions. The merit and honor systems were installed and a probation system organized on the basis of merits for the reformatory. Attention appears to be largely directed to the practical administrative problems; although it is stated that individual attention is given to the care and treatment of the inmates, it is apparently not based on the scientific study of the problems involved. (W. W. C.)

**New York. Catholic Protectory.** Fifty-seventh Annual Report. 1919. Myles Tierney, president. Westchester, N. Y. pp. 79.

The Protectory is one of the largest institutions for dependent and delinquent children, having cared for 4402 boys and 995 girls during the fiscal year. However the population in the institution at any one time consists of about one-half this number owing to the movement of population. Nearly all cases are received by commitment and are supported by counties or cities. The Protectory includes Boy's Department and Girl's Department at Westchester, N. Y. C., Lincoln Agricultural School at Lincolndale, N. Y., and a House of Reception and St. Philip's Home for Industrious Boys in New York City. A Placing-out bureau is maintained for both boys and girls for whom "every effort to secure suitable homes" is made for the children who have "attained considerable success". The report contains a number of cuts showing various buildings and activities of the institution. It indicates only briefly and in general terms the organization for educational, vocational, and religious instruction. (W. W. C.)

**New York. Juvenile Asylum.** Sixty-seventh Annual Report. 1918. Guy Morgan, superintendent. Dobbs Ferry, N. Y. pp. 56.

Preferably known as The Children's Village, this institution "has attained a deservedly high position as a cottage home school in which the students are surrounded by a wholesome home atmosphere, and by those influences which tend to develop the mind and inculcate good morals, manliness and the responsibilities of citizenship. In addition, the boys are given the opportunity of preparing for a useful place in life through industrial and vocational training." It has had the reputation of "a model institution" and has made remarkable administrative advances in providing individualization and home life for its 600 boys. (W. W. C.)

**New York. State Reformatories.** Report of the State Board of Managers. Elmira-43rd report; Napanoch-18th Report. 1918. Frank L. Christian, superintendent. Elmira, N. Y. pp. 92.

In general, the average population of the two state reformatories reduced itself about one-half that of ordinary times due (1) to extraordinary industrial conditions that began at outbreak of war with the resultant remunerative employment, and (2) to the entry of the U. S. into the war as the average age of population is about 21 years. In the past, short periods of "hard times" have caused the reformations to be overcrowded and this situation may again be expected. Dr. Glueck is reported as finding at Sing Sing prison that 66.7 per cent of the inmates, beyond having committed the crime that caused their conviction, were individuals who had shown throughout life a tendency to act in a manner



contrary to the behavior of the average normal person, while about 30 per cent had a degree of intelligence not exceeding that of a child of twelve years. A similar situation was revealed by examinations in the state reformatories. In addition to the usual reports and tables, "A Study of Five Hundred Parole Violators" by Dr. Christian is included in this report, (previously reviewed) analyzing the social and mental factors involved and affording a valuable contribution to the meager literature in this field. (W. W. C.)

**New Jersey.** *State Home for Girls.* Forty-eighth Annual Report. 1918. Mrs. E. V. H. Mansell, superintendent. Trenton, New Jersey. pp. 11.

A brief, concise statement indicating a few of the problems and needs of the School, particularly the development of recreational facilities within and parole methods without. The report of the psychologist gives results of intelligence testing as follows: White, normal, 12; borderline, 28; defective, 32; Colored, normal, 3; borderline, 8; defective, 15. (W. W. C.)

**Pennsylvania.** *The Glen Mills Schools.* Ninety-first Annual Report. 1919. F. H. Nibecker, superintendent Boys' Department, Glenn Mills, Pa. Martha P. Falconer, superintendent Girls' Department, Darlington, Pa. pp. 59.

This report contains the administrative, social and financial statistics usually found in annual reports. The parole work both of Boys' and Girls' Departments appear to be well organized; about 600 boys are in care of four visiting agents. In addition to visiting each boy from three to seven times during the year, 93 per cent of those paroled have been provided with "big brothers." The Girls' School maintains a Child Study Department in charge of a psychologist who gives mental examinations and "makes as carefully detailed a study as possible of every girl committed to the school. This is done so that she may be placed in the environment most suited to her and given the training by which she is best able to profit." Of 219 entering girls examined by Stanford Revision of Binet-Simon Intelligence Scale in eight months, it was found that 64.8 per cent were definitely feeble-minded, 10.5 per cent borderline, 13.7 per cent dull-normal, and 10.9 per cent normal. (W. W. C.)

**Texas.** *State Juvenile Training School.* Annual Report of the Board of Trustees. 1917-1918. C. F. King, superintendent. Gatesville, Texas. pp. 36.

This institution is being changed from a reformatory to an industrial school for youths under seventeen years of age. During the past five years its population has increased from about 300 to 736, due to "the fact that the Juvenile Act touches classes hitherto left to their own devices." The superintendent and trustees have apparently taken a broad view in the development of the work in fostering a state-wide policy, and are requesting facilities for proper treatment, segregation, and supervision. (W. W. C.)

**United States.** *Penitentiary at Leavenworth, Kansas.* Annual Report. June 30, 1919. A. V. Anderson, warden. Leavenworth, Kansas. pp. 105.

This report is limited to administrative and financial data, including reports of goods produced and work done. At the end of the fiscal year there were 2011 prisoners in the penitentiary. (W. W. C.)



# The Journal of Delinquency

Volume V

SEPTEMBER, 1920

Number 5

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## TREATMENT OF CRIMINALS

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The history of the treatment of the criminal bears a striking resemblance to that of the insane. In fact, the methods of treating these two collateral maladies of social and physical degeneracy have been identical, have passed through the same periods of evolution and have arrived at the same goal.

The insane were at one time regarded as demon-infested individuals and they were subjected to all manner of barbarous and cunning cruelties to expel evil spirits which were thought to possess them. Later this view was somewhat changed and their insanities were looked upon as being the results of sin. Religious remedies and lessons in morality were applied, but without results, while methods of torture and punishment were resumed.

The lot of the insane was indeed a sad one until in 1793, when Pinel broke the shackles of iron and prejudice from the mentally diseased, proved them to be sick individuals and not the abode of evil spirits or the objects of wrath of an angry God. This marked the beginning of the period of scientific treatment which is in force at the present time.

The first idea that regulated humanity's dealings with the violators of her laws was that of vengeance and retaliation. Much time was spent in contriving plans and constructing devices for the torture of prisoners. The stage of vengeance was succeeded by the period in which the idea of retributive justice was prominent. Prisoners were punished cruelly and without reason; the more severe the punishment, the more efficacious it was thought to be. As late as 1797, two hundred and twenty-two different crimes ranging from petit larceny to murder were punishable by death, and history records more than thirty ways of inflicting the death penalty. And yet this drastic method did not reduce crime. At one time the methods of trial were as cruel, and many times more so, than the punishment itself. The trial by ordeal which was practiced in the early part of the thirteenth century is particularly illustrative of this fact.

This method of trial by ordeal was really a religious rite and was conducted by the clergy. They assumed that *Diety* would interfere sometime during the procedure and indicate the innocence or guilt of the accused. The alleged criminal was prepared for his trial by three days of fasting and prayer; he was then brought into the church and a religious ceremony was performed. When the rites were finished the alleged criminal was compelled to immerse his arm in a pot of boiling water or oil and pick from the bottom of it a stone, varying in weight with the degree of the alleged crime. The tortured member was then bound in bandages which were removed on the third day, and if any sign of scalding was present the prisoner was held to be guilty, and if none were to be found, God was thought to have intervened to show the innocence of the accused. Some of the alleged criminals, after a preparation of fasting and prayer, had their hands and feet tied together, and then were thrown into a pond; if they sank they were innocent and if they floated they were guilty. There were various other forms of trial of a similar nature, such as walking barefooted over hot stones and plowshares; carrying red-hot pieces of metal the distance of nine feet; and in both instances, if the skin was burned, the prisoner was held to be guilty because God had not interfered in his behalf. There is no record that the priests ever employed these methods of trial upon themselves. They tried themselves by merely swallowing a piece of bread called *corsnaed*, and in case a priest was guilty, it was claimed by the clergy that he would be poisoned and if innocent there would be no danger. History does not record that any priest died by this means of trial.

The trial by wager of battle was introduced into England by William the Conqueror. The accused and the accuser selected someone to fight for them and a combat was carried on before some specified authority. The individual who was beaten or lost his life was held to be guilty. Further descriptions of these trials are not necessary since they have in common the brutalities of this period.

As charitable and modern religious ideas began to permeate and diffuse themselves into the social consciousness, the period of reformation followed the futile and barren era of retribution. The idea of reformation then governed and designated in a large manner the way in which criminals should be treated.

Pope Clement XI is credited with having introduced the reformatory treatment of prisoners and over the door of the Hospital of St. Michael in Rome in the year 1704 he inscribed this significant state-



ment: "For the correction and instruction of profligate youth, that they, who when idle were injurious, may when taught become useful to the State." This marked the beginning of a great epoch in society's methods of dealing with the delinquent. The reformatory idea spread but slowly upon the continent of Europe and not until the time of John Howard was any great progress made. This illustrious prison worker was born in London, September 2, 1726. He was an intensely religious individual and his work in the English prisons was at all times regulated by his religious beliefs. In fact he gave his whole life to prison reform; he toured the continent of Europe and visited all its prisons, and this he did at his own expense.

One writer says of him, "No one ever arose to champion the cause of the prisoner with clearer vision, deeper sympathy, or a more dauntless spirit of heroism than he." At this time in England, the law as well as the custom laid the cost of the prisons upon the prisoners. There were fees, rents, filth, squalor, starvation, swarms of vermin, colonies of rats, thumbscrews, underground dungeons, prisoners being chained to dead bodies, jail fevers and smallpox sweeping away hundreds; these with a thousand other iniquitous practices by the shameless magistrates give an idea of what kind of treatment the prisoners received and with what they had to contend. Howard found that the English public and parliament were utterly ignorant of prisons and prison treatment, and he made it his duty to carefully visit the principal prisons in every continental state, some of them repeatedly, gathering every information possible, and finally, having satisfied his exacting conscience, he published his book on the "State of Prisons". Thus he dragged the abomination of prison life into daylight and forced it upon the notice of the public and parliament. He died January 12, 1790 while on his way to Turkey and the Orient to inspect the prisons of those lands.

In Italy at practically the same time another great prison reformer by the name of Beccaria was working. His chief efforts were directed against the absurdities and cruelties of the existing criminal laws of his time. These contemporaries had many ideas in common concerning crime. They did not believe in physical torture, the death penalty, or life imprisonment. Both of them were opposed to imprisonment for debt and to long detention awaiting trial. The improvement in the treatment of criminals from the time of Howard was gradual and continuous, but very slow. The chief reason for this tardy progress in these reforms was due to the fact that the



theological idea of crime held sway. The criminal was looked upon as a sinner; all that was thought necessary was to convert him to religious beliefs and then the problem would be solved.

Within the last quarter of a century many religious workers often made the exaggerated claim that they could reform the prisoners to a man and cure them of their criminality. One very enthusiastic prison chaplain in the state of New York, in very recent years, claimed that he had converted and reformed ninety-four per cent of the prisoners in the institutions where he was chaplain. Religious workers swarmed in our penal institutions; all of them wanted an opportunity to share in the glory of making over a criminal. It was forgotten that the prisoner had a body and mind which needed attention. This fact was of no importance to them at all, or at least it was neglected.

In justice and fairness it has to be admitted that the reformatory idea was responsible for many improvements in penal institutions. The lot of the prisoner was improved but crime was not reduced. Individuals were sent to prison during this period to be reformed and preached at and it was held that the convict who did not respond to the application of religious lessons and moral precepts was beyond the pale of redemption and he deserved the severest kind of punishment. It is to be regretted, though it is nevertheless true, that some of our moral instructors of penal institutions, ignoring the advance of science, still cling to their pet theories that religious remedies are the only means to be employed in the solution of the criminal problem even though everywhere about them are multitudes of failures of their methods, which even a juggling of statistics cannot hide.

In the same manner as the treatment of the insane evolved so has the treatment of the criminal. We have passed the stage of brutality and retribution, through the period of religious reformation and we have now entered upon the scientific and humanitarian era in criminology. We no longer regard the convict as a demon-possessed unfortunate, or the wilful and conscious chooser of evil; but we do believe, after science has pushed through the crust of orthodoxy and delved into the study of those forces which regulate his actions, that he is in the majority of instances mentally and physically defective, that his crimes are manifestations of pathological conditions due to defects of cerebral development or to acquired retrograde changes of the central nervous system.

No matter how hard it may be to view the criminal as a sick man from the pulpit or from the dignified and solemn bench of the jurist, where we have condemned for deliberate sin or have pronounced the penalties of the statutes upon him, we will get this view of him, if we study crime and criminals, not from afar off, in clerical or judicial gowns, but in our shirtsleeves in the laboratories of psychopathology.

There is a striking resemblance between the formation of society and the structure of the human body. The physical organism is composed of millions of cells so joined as to form tissues and these tissues in turn are united to form organs which carry out the functions of the human economy. The social organism is composed of individuals grouped into classes and these classes are joined to form institutions and departments which carry out the functions of the political body. This analogy may be carried still further. The human body becomes diseased and degenerated and in like manner the social organism is subject to the ravages of disease and degeneracy. Crime may be looked upon as being a symptom of diseased body politic. Crime is a result of social and individual degeneracy. It would be highly presumptuous on the part of physicians if they applied the same remedy for the treatment of all diseases. And yet society has from time immemorial applied a single remedy of punishment and imprisonment to crime, which is but a symptomatic expression of social defect. The best method of treating any disease is its prevention. The old adage, "An ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure," should take first place in therapeusis of crime. It is at once admitted that a large part of crime can never be prevented or abolished, no matter how perfectly we may regulate human life; there are certain inherent tendencies in the human race, such as hate, anger, jealousy, combativeness, selfishness, etc., which are conducive to crime. It is easy enough to say from a theoretical standpoint that crime is dependent upon personal immorality and social degeneracy and if we suppress these two, that crime will be eliminated.

In the psychopathological laboratories of our penal and reformatory institutions it has been shown that crime is largely dependent upon mental defect and it is certain if we can prevent the inheritance of mental defectiveness we can to a great extent prevent delinquency. Since this thesis is somewhat of a recapitulation of the criminal problem from a psychiatric and psychological point of view, it will not be out of place to again mention eugenics as a treatment for the diseased body politic. It is within the power of the state to enact



and enforce such legislation as will control to a great degree the manufacture of idiots, imbeciles, moral degenerates, epileptics, insane and syphilitics.

The three most important methods which are calculated to eliminate to a great degree the above mentioned classes are the following:

1st. The restriction of marriage to those who are physically, morally and mentally unfit to assume the duties of parenthood.

2nd. The segregation of the feeble-minded, and more especially the females of this class, within the limits of the child-bearing period.

3rd. The asexualization of the degenerate, defective habitual criminal and chronically insane. The laws of this nature are now being opposed because of the blind, alarmed and superstitious conservatism that is entertained by the public and also because of the almost perfect indifference of society in general to the social and racial welfare.

When the social conscience has been sufficiently educated as to understand the facts of evil heredity the public will demand that eugenic laws be enacted and enforced and then one of the great tributaries of crime will be cut off. These measures will not be adopted for some time and even if they were, certain social factors must be considered and cared for.

The subject of social alleviation of crime is one with which the sociologists will carefully deal and a lengthy discussion of this subject is not intended in this article, though it will be well to mention this subject in passing. If society could be reorganized upon improved economic and political lines no doubt criminality would be greatly reduced. The reduction of poverty would reduce crimes against property to a very great degree and if better political relationship could be established between the government and the individual and between individuals, the number of crimes against persons would likewise be reduced. Before either of these reforms can take place, public education is necessary. The chief aim of education is to qualify the individual to secure the largest possibilities of life. Education will assist us in seeing the rights of others, the state's duty toward its citizens, and our duty toward ourselves. Some criminal reformers, as has been previously mentioned, who have displayed a tendency to charge all crime, or at least a larger part of it, to wilful sinfulness, have been busy advocating religious remedies



alone as their treatment for crime. The basis for their doctrine is a blind belief in the theory of absolute freedom of the will and a spirit of conservatism which is anxious to perpetuate existing religious ideas. Every thinking individual freely acknowledges that religious and moral teaching play a tremendous part in the regulation of humanity's conduct. The church perpetuates certain ethical and moral standards, without which society would sink to a very low level. The late Elbert Hubbard once wrote in his usual pungent style that the Catholic Church was in fact the greatest police force that New York City could have. He recognized that the clergy and the teachings of this church exercise a very strong restraining influence upon its communicants, among whom are a great many foreigners who have not acquired the American standards of living.

When the individual is untrammelled by evil birth; when poverty is prevented and economic ills corrected; when he will be given a well rounded education combined with a rationalized religion and intelligent conventional morality; when he is allowed to live a normal life in the pursuit of liberty and happiness, delinquency will largely disappear. We cannot hope to eliminate the criminal or crime in the near future; these ideals are too Utopian, but it is along these lines that we must make our endeavors. In fact we will have some criminals no matter how perfect society becomes. The criminal is here with us; we must deal with him as he is; we have treated him with barbarous cruelty and we have preached to him and coddled him within the last few years and we have failed in both these methods.

We are now entering the era of the treatment of the criminal. Treatment implies that we must make a diagnosis of disease before we proceed with the medication, and the same principles must hold true when dealing with criminality. This will mean a revision of our present criminal codes and such innovations are always skeptically received. The first changes to be made in our present methods relate to court procedure. Before the alleged criminal comes before the bar of justice he should be examined socially, physically and mentally in a psychopathic laboratory, that his mental status may be fully determined. There are at the present time several psychopathic institutes in connection with our courts. They are not yet strictly official organizations except in a few instances and for the most part are supported by private enterprise. Chief among these is the laboratory in Chicago, attached to the court of Chief Justice Olson. He

has set a splendid example for all the rest of the courts of the land and his new departure in criminal procedure is arousing a keen interest all over the United States. Smaller institutions of like character are now being organized in various parts of the country. A similar court psychopathic institute is now in operation in Boston. The work that they have done fully justifies their existence and proves the correctness of the theories of those who have organized them.

It has been shown that widely different crimes may be committed from the same motives and the same crime may be committed from widely different motives. Little attention is paid to this great truth in our courts as they are ordinarily conducted. It would be one of the functions of the court laboratory to explain the motivation of crime in each individual case that equity may be practiced. Individualization of the treatment of the criminal cannot be carried too far, lest it undermine the social defense. Laws cannot be made to fit every individual case by legislation. Some standards must be preserved, but our courts should know the history of the criminal, including his heredity, education, occupation, previous criminal record and his condition of life, his mental status at the time of the commission of his crime and at the time of trial, and the origin, character and intensity of his crime. When all this information is gathered together and presented to the court, the judge and jury will have a vast fund of information which will enable them to deal with the criminal more intelligently than at present.

Our prisons and reformatories in general are greatly in need of improved administration. The control of prison management should be taken from the politicians who have heretofore received their appointments in recognition of their political service and not because of any particular qualifications. In the past the other officials and guards have been selected in the same manner. These practices have been one of the most grievous faults of prison management and have materially hindered progress in penology. It is gratifying however to see that the official personnel of penal institutions has greatly improved in the last ten years, but there is still opportunity for progress along these lines. The control of penal institutions should be in the hands of educated men, preferably psychiatrists, psychologists, sociologists or educators. Accumulated evidence concerning the character and mental makeup of the prisoner unmistakably points to such a choice. An uneducated, illiterate, blindly prejudiced, political henchman cannot grasp the first principles of



scientific penology. He cannot understand that a prison should be a moral hospital and an educational institution.

At least two-thirds of the inmates of our penal and reformatory institutions are physically and mentally defective. Prisoners are received into our institutions suffering with all degrees of all the sicknesses to which human flesh is heir. This state of affairs requires that the penal institution have a well organized medical department equipped to modern standards and officered by competent physicians so that it may render all the necessary medical service. A venereally diseased prisoner must be intensively treated that he may not be a source of danger to those about him and that he may be saved from the ravages of syphilis which come on later in life in the form of locomotor ataxia, cerebral syphilis and paresis. The prison physicians must be competent to do surgery, so that all remedial defects may be cured. Very often the origin of crime itself lies in some physical defect, such as defective eyesight, stupidity from enlarged tonsils and adenoids and the dragging weight of an irritating hernia.

A department for the treatment of tuberculosis is absolutely necessary since great numbers of prisoners are sufferers from the "white plague." The weak undeveloped prisoner must have his body reconstructed, the muscular and nervous system restored to par; in fact the prison fails in its duty if the paroled or discharged prisoner does not go out of the institution physically better than when he came into it. The paroled and discharged men from the Indiana State Prison show an average increase of twelve pounds and I am certain that this physical improvement takes place in most of the penal institutions, at least in the modern ones, throughout the country.

Every prison and reformatory should have a psychopathic laboratory wherein the prisoners may be classified so that the administrative officers may deal with them intelligently. The insane, epileptic, feeble-minded, psychopathic and sexually pervert criminals must be segregated and separated from the prisoners of normal mentality. The mental capacities and abilities of the convicts must be discovered so that they may be assigned to the work for which they are best fitted and which is calculated to develop those qualities of mind and powers of the hand which will enable them to earn a livelihood after they have been discharged.

We now recognize that recreation plays an important part in the treatment of criminals. To better a man's moral nature it is neces-



sary first to effect a radical change in his physical condition. The question of recreation, mental and physical, so far as it relates to prison reform, is yet in its infancy. Indeed its importance is too little considered by those who have to do with the training of prisoners. It is strange then that as a factor in the prevention and cure of crime, which it seems to me is the only object for which penal and reformatory institutions are maintained, that recreation should have received such little attention in the past or that it should not come to the foreground now as a potent agency in the elimination of the causes of crime, as well as one of the important factors which help to solve the question of prison discipline.

Work in itself not hard, becomes so by being pressed day after day with unrelenting monotony. For men who spend the whole of every week day in unrelenting toil, very little good can be done for them by one hour's religious instruction on Sunday. Recognizing the need of mental and physical recreation it has been the policy of the Indiana State Prison to have ball games and military drill every Saturday afternoon in the summer and moving picture shows or vaudeville in the winter. There are four baseball teams made up of the inmates of the institution. It is indeed gratifying to the officials of the institution to see how much enjoyment and enthusiasm is displayed at one of these games. I do not believe any grandstand or bleachers on the outside are filled with more energetic and enthusiastic baseball fans than are the ones at Michigan City Prison. The men forget for the time being that they are surrounded by four great, high brick walls. This weekly privilege and recreation is sacredly guarded by the men and very few are the breaches of discipline committed at these periods of recreation.

Society in the past has subjected all the prisoners of the same institution to the same sort of treatment and failure was the inevitable result. The treatment in prison must be individualized and this cannot be done unless the offender is studied and understood by a psychopathologist. The mental surveys of prisoners in a psychopathic laboratory in a prison give a far clearer insight into the mental status of prisoners than is possible to be obtained in a court psychopathic laboratory. This is no fault of the last named laboratory. The difference lies in the opportunity for thorough examination. In the prison the psychiatrist and psychologist studies the criminals for months; the prisoner is no longer nervous because of his anxiety and apprehension about the outcome of his trial. No more he makes escapes

attention. While in confinement the prisoner is under constant observation during daylight hours and when he is asleep he is watched. With this constant method of examination and observation the mental status and needs are discovered and the necessary treatment instituted.

One of the greatest advances made in the treatment of the criminal in recent years was the enactment and enforcement of the indeterminate sentence laws in the various states of the union. When these laws were introduced they were met by a marked antagonism, especially on the part of the very conservative element of prison administrators. All sorts of arguments were brought to bear to prove that these laws were impractical and sentimental. The passage of time however has been sufficient to prove the falsity of these arguments. Hon. Amos W. Butler, Secretary, Board of State Charities of Indiana, has analyzed the workings of the indeterminate sentence and parole law which has been in operation for the past eighteen years in the state of Indiana. The following is an extract from his report:

"The Indiana institutions have kept careful records of their paroled prisoners, and in recent years have sent a summary to the Board of State Charities every six months. On April 1, 1915, we completed eighteen years' experience under the law. In that period 9,034 men and women were paroled. Of this number 5,422 observed faithfully the conditions of their release and were discharged; the maximum sentence of 459 expired during the parole period and they were free from further supervision; 154 died; 618 were still on parole and were making the required reports. This leaves 2,381 to be accounted for. They are the delinquents, the unsatisfactory cases. They constitute 26.3 per cent of the whole number paroled. Sixty per cent of the number paroled were young men under thirty years of age. The proportion of unsatisfactory cases among this class, 25.7 per cent, was less than among the women, 28.6 per cent, and the older men, 27.2 per cent. These men and women maintained themselves during the parole period, and at the time they ceased reporting had on hand or due them \$454,416.25, an average of \$50.30 each. It should be clearly understood that all that is claimed for these figures is that they are a record of results for the time the paroled prisoners were under supervision, which was in a few cases less than one year.

"In this connection has been noted a striking fact in regard to the number of commitments for felony in recent years, and the daily average population of our state penal institutions. The former is

## INDIANA STATE PRISON

Table Showing Average Time Served Under Definite Sentence as Compared with Indeterminate Sentence

CRIMES	Num- ber Men	AVERAGE TIME SERVED									
		Definite Sentence 1900		Indeterminate Sentence 1900		Indeterminate Sentence 1900		Indeterminate Sentence 1900		Indeterminate Sentence 1900	
		Yrs.	Mos.	Days	Yrs.	Mos.	Days	Yrs.	Mos.	Days	Yrs.
Petit Larceny.....	110	1	2	10	1	11	26	2	5	6	
Grand Larceny.....	77	1	10	12	2	10	13	2	11	26	
Burglary.....	62	2	4	17	3	1	23	4	9	2	
Assault and Battery to Kill.....	14	2	11	...	2	6	1	3	6	2	
Forgery.....	11	2	...	27	2	2	23	2	0	10	
Receiving Stolen Goods.....	6	...	11	...	1	0	11	3	6	15	
Rape.....	6	2	3	10	3	1	...	3	...	9	
Perjury.....	4	1	10	22	2	2	22	2	2	19	
Manslaughter.....	4	1	9	...	4	4	18	2	6	10	
Arson.....	4	3	6	7	1	7	10	3	6	12	
False Pretense.....	4	1	6	7	1	9	20	2	6	9	
Incest.....	2	1	9	...	3	3	16	4	6	...	
Total.....	304	2	...	2	2	6	25	3	2	7	



less, the latter more, than when prisoners were sentenced for a definite time. Taking a period of twenty-one years, the ten preceding and the ten following the enactment of our indeterminate sentence law in 1897, I find a total of 7,539 commitments from 1887 to 1896, and a total of 6,632 commitments from 1898 to 1907, inclusive. They averaged 754 annually under the definite sentence, 663 annually under the indeterminate sentence. It means a decrease of 12 per cent annually in favor of the latter. It may be well to mention here that in the two decades from 1890 to 1910 the population of Indiana increased 23 per cent. That this increase in general population was accompanied by a decrease in prison commitments was probably not due wholly to the effects of the indeterminate sentence law, but it seems to me very significant.

"In the prison population, on the other hand, the increased average daily attendance is no less significant. Under the definite sentence, our courts measured out so much punishment for so much crime. Having served his time, the prisoner was free to go. Under the present system of indeterminate sentence with parole, accompanied as it is with efforts at reformation, the average length of sentence is markedly longer. We have found from a study of our State Prison records that 304 men committed beginning in 1890, for a definite time, served an average of two years and two months each. The average time served by the first 304 men committed after January 1, 1900, under the indeterminate sentence, for the same crimes, was six months and twenty-three days longer. The average time served by 304 men committed for the same crimes after January 1, 1906, was 1 year, 2 months, 5 days longer."

The indeterminate sentence laws are based upon the theory that they give the criminal the opportunity to choose between reformation and long imprisonment. I have found by actual experience that the habitual and professional criminals dislike the indeterminate sentence laws exceedingly since their past records generally enter into the consideration of their cases by the Parole Board when they apply for parole. Repeated offences against the law do not favorably impress the Board of Parole. To meet the situation the old offender in the majority of cases knows that the only hope he has for an early release is a record of good conduct, and he therefore deliberately sets about to impress the prison officials with his apparent reformation. The accidental criminal unused to the ways of prison life often loses a few merits of good behavior before he learns to peacefully adjust

himself to the rules of the prison. The prisoner who is serving his first sentence, unless his charge is a very serious one and unless he is mentally unfit, is released on parole at the expiration of the minimum sentence. While outside the prison he is still under control of the institution, and is subject to arrest if he violates the conditions of his parole agreement. After he has served a year's probation outside of the institution he is given his final discharge. This method of treating the criminal is similar to the parole of apparently recovered insane from state hospitals.

There are a few faults to be found with the indeterminate sentence law. The first objection offered against it is that it is expensive. This argument is usually answered by those who favor it by saying that the indeterminate sentence law was primarily enacted to save men, not money. The only real argument against the indeterminate sentence law is that it is not indeterminate enough; in fact there should be no maximum limit to the sentence. The indeterminate sentence could be made to include all penalties except capital punishment and life imprisonment. The chief defect of the indeterminate sentence law today lies in the fact that it is based upon the principle that all prisoners are mentally normal, and we know that this premise is not true. As an advisory member of the Board of Parole at the Indiana State Prison I have had ample opportunity to see the fault just mentioned. Under the operation of this law, all classes of mentally defective individuals, including the epileptic, insane and feeble-minded, have appeared before the Parole Board making their applications for release from prison after serving their minimum sentences or more, and they are often released by this board since this body had in many instances no other choice of action. The prison was full to overflowing and the hospital for insane criminals was crowded beyond its capacity. If the science of criminalistics continues to progress, and I am sure that it will, the indeterminate sentence laws must of necessity give way to indefinite sentence laws which for safety may have a minimum term. Under this new system no definite period of incarceration will be set. The criminal will be kept in the penal institution until he is cured of his criminal tendencies and safe to be released. Those prisoners who are so mentally defective or incorrigible that cure is impossible will be kept for the balance of their lives, that society may be protected.

It will be necessary under the indefinite sentence laws to have a board of properly trained experts who are capable of judging when



an individual should be returned to society. This board should be composed of the superintendent of the penal institution, who holds his position by reason of the fact that he is qualified; an attorney, trained in the science of criminology; an alienist, trained in psychology as well as in medicine, and who shall have had training in a prison as well as in a hospital for the insane; an educator, conversant with the problems of sociology; and the institutional physician, who is a psychiatrist and whose intimate experience and observation of the criminal enables him to render valuable information concerning the applicants for parole. This body of experts should be a board administered by the state and known as the State Board of Parole. It should have no official connection with the penal institutions, except in the case of the warden and physician, and should be entirely removed from the influence of politics.

In order that the idea of treatment of the criminal may be carried on to a successful conclusion, it will be necessary that the present character and general administration of our penal institutions be changed. No doubt for many years to come our prisons will continue to be filled with a heterogenous group of the mentally normal, the mentally subnormal, the insane and the semi-insane, the feeble-minded, and the epileptic, the physically healthy, the tubercular, the venereally diseased, and the otherwise physically unfit. In the prison of the near future these various classes of individuals will be identified, classified, and properly segregated; the prisons will then cease to be simple, custodial abodes of those who have offended society, but they will become complex institutions, equipped with psychological laboratories, modern hospitals, schools of letters and manual training, sanitary workshops, where the prisoner will learn under kindly but firm discipline the truth of the scriptural injunction "In the sweat of thy brow, thou shalt eat bread," and that the privilege to live in extramural society shall depend upon the capacity to earn a decent, honest living at respectable labor. In brief, our prisons must become moral, orthopedic institutes for the physical, mental and ethical rehabilitation of criminal man.

In concluding this thesis it will be well to discuss very briefly the so-called honor system, which has within the last five years come into considerable prominence. Some prison wardens, who understand the art of newspaper advertising better than they do the problems of penology, have given the public very erroneous ideas about the self-government of criminals in penal institutions. If we were



to believe all the current statements given in newspapers and magazines by over enthusiastic but misguided prison reformers to be entirely accurate, we should believe that the trusting of prisoners is something entirely new. Such an idea is absolutely incorrect. Prisoners have been trusted and put on their honor in well conducted penal institutions for years. This was done without ostentation and newspaper publicity, long before an honor system was ever dreamed of in Sing Sing. Hundreds of prisoners have worked outside the prison walls at the Indiana State Prison for nearly twenty years but great care was exercised in selecting these men for positions of trust and honor. The prisoner's record was carefully investigated, his intelligence was considered, his prison record consulted and his general moral status noted. And as a result of this careful selection of these men there have been but very few escapes. At the present time there are one hundred men working on the prison honor farm, which is located about thirty miles from the prison. There is but one guard with these men and he spends his time superintending the farm activities. Occasionally there is an escape but in every instance save one these men have always been captured, and the capture means a doubling of the original sentence. The so-called honor and self-government systems are contrary to good sense and judgment. As has been shown, the greater number of prisoners are below par mentally. The indiscriminate application of the honor system to the general mass of prisoners is absurd and unreasonable. We cannot put moral imbeciles and mentally defective prisoners upon their honor and expect them to keep inviolate the prison rules. Mentally normal prisoners cannot be converted into men of honor by merely saying: "from henceforth I am going to trust you; you are now an honorable and trustworthy individual." The repeating of this presto-chango formula to a dyed-in-the-wool burglar is the veriest kind of moral quackery and nonsense. It is to be admitted that certain desperate criminals have formed personal attachments for a kind hearted warden and will, because of this hero worship, obey this individual's wishes and commands. But this attitude of mind on the part of the prisoner is not the result of reformation; it may be the result of pure selfishness on the part of the prisoner who sees an opportunity in the warden's weakness and vanity to secure his own ends. A dog may follow his master around but he still retains his canine disposition.

Self-government has not been an unqualified success in our universities, where were culture, education and moral training; it has fail-

ed in the military and naval academies, where a most powerful appeal is made to the students to conduct themselves as gentlemen and officers.

The authority of a penal institution must always remain in the hands of the officials of the institution. The prisoners of course are to be allowed certain privileges and liberties, and given reasonable trusts within due bounds. If the penal institution gives its inmates a kindly but firm, square deal discipline, there will be no clamoring among the prisoners for self-government. From a personal experience with prisoners covering several years, I have found that the vast majority of convicts do not even care to attempt self-government. They distrust themselves as well as one another. The fearful uprising which occurred recently in Illinois among prisoners was in an institution where the so-called honor system was in vogue.

Mr. Osborne, in his book, "Society and Prisons," shows that the total number of stab and incised wounds among prisoners in the year 1915 was seventy-one; this was under the government of the Mutual Welfare League. He believes this fact to be an evidence of the success of self-government among prisoners.

At the Indiana State Prison where the so-called honor and self-government systems have not been in vogue, the number of stab and incised wounds was but nine in seven years, and there has been no general uprising among the inmates in thirty years.

The failures of the so-called honor system have been hidden from the general public, but its apparent successes, which are not at all chargeable to the honor system, have been heralded broadcast; and some advocates of the self-government system have admitted this statement in personal interviews with successful prison men who practice intelligent, paternal government and square deal principles in the governing of criminals who have demonstrated their lack of capacity to govern themselves, or to respect the rights of others while they were living at liberty in the outside world.

## THE STABILITY OF THE INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENT

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It is sufficiently well known that the dividing line between definite feeble-mindedness and the borderline of mental deficiency has been drawn by Terman through the I. Q. value of 70. In view of the great body of evidence which has been forthcoming during the last few years, it is clear that this or any other dividing line cannot be used slavishly or mechanically, but serves rather the purpose of general orientation. That is, it serves to record our recognition of the fact that the great majority of the cases which fall below this line are, as a matter of fact, feeble-minded, and *vice versa*.

Now in practice we find occasionally that a young child has an I. Q. well above 70 and at the same time exhibits characteristics which cause the skilled diagnostician to believe that it will prove to be feeble-minded at a later time. Not infrequently this belief proves to be well founded not only according to other criteria of mental defect but according to psychological tests as well. Accordingly the belief has arisen in the minds of some of our diagnosticians the I. Q. of young children is likely to decrease with increasing age and that it is a good practice to take cognizance of this alleged fact in arriving at a diagnosis. And, if this belief were well founded, the fact would be of course of first rate importance.

It is the purpose of this article to discuss the logical presuppositions underlying this belief and to offer the experimental findings bearing on the problem which have accumulated at this institute. No attempt will be made to canvass the literature, but we shall avail ourselves of an interesting article by Wallin for a statement of the problem and for the presentation of some of the arguments.<sup>1</sup>

The problem as Wallin sees it is as follows: "Does mental age retain a constant ratio to chronological age up to the age of mental maturity, or to age 16, or 15, or 14, so that an I. Q. of 50 signifies the same thing for a two year old or a six year old as for a 10, 14, or 16 year old?" And again: "Does the I. Q. value remain the same, as

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1. The Value of the Intelligence Quotient. Jour. Delinq. May 1919.



frequently affirmed, for the same individual throughout the period of his intellectual growth? In other words, can we ever, and if so under what conditions, prognosticate the future intellectual development of an individual purely on the basis of his I. Q. in early childhood?"<sup>2</sup>

Quoting verbatim, Wallin's answer is as follows: "While the differences between each successive chronological age is a constant difference (exactly one year), the difference between each successive mental age gradually (although not regularly) diminishes until it becomes imperceptible toward the period of mental maturity. At what point this slackening in mental growth begins and at what point it reaches its height, we cannot now say. But the result of the progress of slackening is that whereas the difference between each successive chronological age is constant the difference between each successive mental age diminishes, the *necessary*<sup>3</sup> consequence of which would seem to be that the I. Q. exaggerates the mental retardation of youths and adults as compared with children."<sup>4</sup> This amounts to saying, and Wallin does say elsewhere, that the I. Q. decreases with increasing chronological age.<sup>5</sup> As we shall see this answer is based also on experimental evidence. It will be convenient however to discuss the logic of the situation first.

First of all let us note that the problem is stated somewhat ambiguously by Wallin. He asks "Does the I. Q. remain the same for the same individual throughout the period of his intellectual growth?" What evidence would be required before an affirmative answer could be made to this question? Clearly, it could never be proven from the fact that a number of re-examinations yield the same *average* I. Q. as the original examinations. It would be necessary to show that the I. Q. remains the same in each and every case for a large number of cases. A single well authenticated exception would prove that the I. Q. does not *necessarily* remain the same. And anyone at all familiar with the results of the re-examinations of abnormal children knows that such exceptions are by no means rare. I conclude that the problem is better stated by asking—does the I. Q. of any given individual *tend* to remain the same with increasing

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2. *ibid.* p. 110.

3. Italics mine.

4. *ibid.* p. 121.

5. *ibid.* p. 122.

chronological age? What is the probability that it will change 5 points, or 10 points, or any other given number of points?

When the problem is thus stated it becomes possible to find a partial answer without resorting to experimental evidence. For if the scale according to which the I.Q. has been computed has been correctly standardized there will be no *general* tendency for the I.Q. to change with increasing chronological age. This follows at once from the fact that the average I.Q. of any given age group, such as all six year olds in the country, or of all the seven year olds, or of all the individuals of any other given age, will be 100, for that is the way the scale has been standardized. Consequently, if the I.Q.'s of some of the six year olds decrease during the period of one year, the I.Q.'s of some of the others *must* increase, for otherwise the average I.Q. of our six year olds could not be 100 when they have become seven year olds. Therefore, so far as we can reason from these premises (and so far only) the I. Q. of any given individual will not tend to decrease any more than it will tend to increase.

Wallin recognizes the logic of this argument. He says, —“It may be said in reply that no corrective formula is needed because the tests have been empirically standardized for each age, and therefore already compensate the law of diminishing mental growth. Moreover the I.Q. is itself a device for making the compensation... Although this seems to be mathematically correct, yet we find experimentally in all the classifications of our subjects a tendency of the I.Q. to fall as the chronological age rises...”<sup>6</sup> I wish to say in reply that when fact comes into apparent conflict with mathematics or any other form of logic there is, usually, a flaw in the logic, an error in the facts, or a mistake in the premises. We shall find, I think, that the present case is not an exception to the rule.

It is clear that the existence of a type of individual whose I.Q. will tend to decrease would be entirely consistent with the above. Indeed, the question whether or no there is such a type is the only valid problem which remains. It may be, for example, that the I.Q. of individuals whose initial I.Q. is below 75 will tend to decrease with increasing age. If that were so, the total number of such individuals, when compared with the number of the entire population, would be so small that any compensating increase in the average I.Q. value of the rest of the population might well escape experimen-

6. *ibid.* p. 122.



tal verification. Or it may be that the I.Q. of the "unstable" type of personality will tend to decrease with increasing age. But it will be just as well for us to be clear on the point that it is only in the first case, i.e. when the I.Q. is below 75, that we will be considering a *general* property of the I.Q., or, better, a property of the I.Q. which enables us to predict changes in the I.Q. on the basis of mental and chronological age only. In the second case, that of the unstable type it would be not a property of the I.Q. but a characteristic of a type of personality which we would be considering. It would be some characteristic of the individual other than the psychometric index of intelligence which would furnish the basis for the prognosis that deterioration will take place.

The most plausible *a priori* argument which has been advanced to show that there is such a type of individual is a variation of Wallin's argument. The writer is unable to give references, but the best form of the argument which he has seen (or perhaps heard) is somewhat as follows.—The feeble-minded are known to approach as a limit a mental age less than that of normal individuals. Therefore, once that limit has been reached, their I.Q.'s *must* decrease.—There is however an unproven implicit assumption in this argument, viz. that the feeble-minded reach their mental limit more quickly than the normal. For it is obvious that previous to the time that the limit is reached, the limit has no *logical* connection with the *rate* of development, and after the limit has been reached the I.Q. will decrease only if the denominator of the fraction "mental age divided by chronological age" increases. But if the feeble-minded reach their limit at the same chronological age as the normal (16 years according to Terman), the denominator becomes constant. It is entirely possible that some or all of the feeble-minded reach their mental limit before the chronological age of 16, but, so far as I can see, that it is not a necessary consequence of any of the properties of the I.Q.

It remains to examine the experimental evidence offered by Wallin in support of his position. Wallin took 411 (?) consecutive cases examined by him in St. Louis and arranged them in groups such as idiots, imbeciles, morons, etc. He then subdivided each group according to the I. Q. rating, and showed the average chronological age corresponding to each of these I. Q. groups. The table in which his results are exhibited is reproduced in full on account of certain points of methodological interest which will appear.



N.	Number of cases	IV.	Imbeciles (potential morons)	IX.	Borderline (potential feeble-minded)
I.	Idiots	V.	Morons	X.	Backward
II.	Imbeciles	VI.	Diagnosis deferred	XI.	Retarded
III.	Potential morons	VII.	Potential feeble-minded	XII.	Normal
		VIII.	Borderline		

Upon a superficial examination the table seems to bear out Wallin's contention. In nearly every column the chronological age decreases quite clearly and fairly consistently as the I. Q. increases. But upon a closer examination one is struck with certain peculiarities. For example the oldest individual in the group (so far as one can tell from the table) is 16.75 years old and has the lowest I. Q. in the "backward" group (column X.); but that I. Q. (between 55 and 59) is very far from being the lowest I. Q. in the entire group. Again, the two next oldest individuals are 15.58 years old and have the lowest I. Q. in the "borderline" group (column VIII.); but again, their I. Q., again between 55 and 59, is very far from being the lowest I. Q. in the entire group. The striking position of these cases at the head of their respective columns is due therefore not so much to any relation between the I. Q. and chronological age as to the fact that these cases have been grouped as backward and borderline respectively. If the I. Q. had been compared with chronological age regardless of these classifications these cases would not have appeared at the head of any column; they would have served to increase the low average age values corresponding to I. Q.'s between 55 and 59 in the columns further to the left. In order to see the relation of the I. Q. to chronological age regardless of these classifications I computed from Wallin's table the average chronological age corresponding to Wallin's I. Q. groups. The results will be found in Table I.

TABLE I.

<i>Number of Cases</i>	<i>I. Q.</i>	<i>Chronological Age</i>
1	17	12.25
5	21-27	13.98
3	30-34	10.83
3	35-39	9.83
22	40-44	12.22
24	45-49	11.66
35	50-54	12.14
64	55-59	10.75
87	60-64	10.96
135	65-69	10.54
110	70-74	10.64
71	75-79	10.34
46	80-84	10.59
20	85-89	11.06
15	90-94	10.06
6	95-99	9.80
1	101	10.00
1	108	7.83
Total 649		

The first thing which challenges our attention is that the total number of cases contained in this table is 649, whereas Wallin's table, we are told, shows us the distribution of the I.Q.'s of 411 cases. However, on account of other points of methodological interest, we may continue our examination of this evidence assuming that 649 is the correct number of cases. Our Table I. still shows decreasing age with increasing I.Q., although the decrease is decidedly less striking than in the original table, especially if we consider only the I.Q. groups in which there are 20 or more cases. Now, so far as we can judge from Wallin's table, it would seem to be a fact that Wallin has given (I do not say *tends to give*) more favorable classifications to the older individuals. Either he has been led to do so by the bias (unconscious no doubt) that the I.Q. decreases with increasing chronological age, or else he has not been led by this bias. If the former has been the case, it is of course bad logic to put our conclusions into our premises<sup>7</sup>. If on the other hand bias has not been a factor, the fact still remains that these classifications are not essential to the consideration of the problem with which we are dealing, and, if the disappearance of the striking features of the decrease of chronological age when these classifications are omitted cannot be explained by unconscious bias, its explanation constitutes a problem separate and distinct from the main issue. In any event, Table I is a way of exhibiting the relation of the I.Q. to chronological age free from the possible objection of conscious bias.

It would have been desirable to show Wallin's experimental findings in the more adequate form of a correlation table and to compute the coefficient of correlation of chronological age to the I.Q. That however is impossible on account of the form which Wallin has chosen to give to his material. The most that can be done is to calculate the artificial coefficient which results from his table and to show *that the true coefficient is necessary lower in value*. The reason for that is

7. With reference to the question of unconscious bias it may be of interest to state that Wallin made the psychological examinations himself and arrived at his classifications knowing the chronological age, the mental age, and certain other facts. He states that he did not have any conscious I. Q. standards in mind, and that the I. Q. was computed after the classification had been made. I may remark that knowledge of the chronological and mental age is scarcely equivalent to ignorance of the I. Q. Assuming a fair degree of facility at mental arithmetic, a fairly accurate impression of the magnitude of the I. Q. is very likely to arise in the mind without conscious effort, especially if the diagnostician has positive views about the relation of the I. Q. to chronological age.



that whereas the cases are grouped within comparatively narrow I.Q. limits (as they should be), they are not grouped at all with reference to age. Take for example the 53 cases classed as *borderline potential feeble-minded*<sup>8</sup> with I.Q.'s between 65 and 69 and with an average age of 10.66. In a correlation table the age of these cases would have been defined not only by the average age but also by narrow limits, e.g. by the statement that the age is 10 years or more and less than 11 years. In Wallin's table we are given no information at all about the age limits and it may be, for aught we know that some of these 53 cases are at the extreme limits of the entire table, viz. 5 and 19 years.<sup>9</sup> The *necessary consequence* of this state of affairs is that the coefficient of correlation computed on the basis of this table will have a greater value than the true value<sup>10</sup>.

The factitious value of the coefficient of correlation of the I. Q. to chronological age which can be calculated from Wallin's table was found by me to be -0.38. We may gain some idea of the magnitude of the true coefficient by considering the magnitude of the standard deviation of the age distribution which results from Wallin's table, viz. 1.17 years. Inasmuch as the range of the table is 14 years it will be apparent at once to any one familiar with the properties of biometric constants that this value of the standard deviation is strikingly small. As a rule a range of 6 times the standard deviation includes more than 99 percent of the cases<sup>11</sup> whereas 14 years is 12 times the standard deviation. If now we assume that the true standard deviation is 2.34, i.e. double the factitious value, the coefficient of correlation will become -0.19. We can be reasonably certain at any rate that -0.19 is nearer to the true value than -0.38.

The probable error of such a coefficient would be about 0.034. It seems therefore that there is a small but valid negative correlation between the I.Q. and chronological age for the cases examined by Wallin. But even if the explanation advanced by him were the only possible explanation, the correlation is so slight that it should not be taken into account for diagnostic purposes. However, as Wallin admits, his explanation is not the only one possible. Indeed, when

8. Column IX.

9. *ibid.* p. 113.

10. In the formula for the Pearson coefficient of correlation, Wallin's table would yield the same value for the numerator of the fraction as a true correlation table, but the denominator would necessarily be smaller.

11. cf. Yule: *Introduction to the Theory of Statistics*, p. 140.

we consider that Wallin's cases form a highly selected group by virtue of the very fact that they have been referred to him for examination, it becomes highly improbable that it is the correct explanation. Consider for example the case of the one idiot, 12.25 years old, with an I.Q. of 17. Surely that individual has been an idiot throughout his life, and the only valid question with reference to him would be why he has not been referred for examination at an earlier time. Perhaps his parents were willing and able to take care of him up to this time. Or perhaps they did not know of the facilities of the state for caring for such unfortunates. And similar considerations are probably in order if we consider the five imbeciles with I.Q.'s between 21 and 27 and an average age of 13.98. Surely, the advanced age of such individuals in conjunction with their low I.Q. is not to be explained by a tendency of the I.Q. to decrease with advancing age, *but by the circumstances which led to their being examined* at a more advanced age than the younger and more intelligent individuals. And, if conditions in St. Louis are at all like conditions here, the most plausible explanation would seem to be that troublesome and delinquent children are referred more promptly than harmless stupid children.<sup>12</sup>

Summing up the ground we have been over, it seems that we are justified in the conclusion that neither the facts nor the arguments we have examined so far justify the conclusion that there is a type of individual whose I.Q. tends to decrease with increasing age. However, as we have seen, Wallin's experimental data have at best only an indirect bearing on the issue. As he points out, the re-examination after an interval of the same individuals is the direct mode of attack. Therefore, although the evidence which has accumulated at this institute is not very conclusive, I shall present it for what it may be worth.

It is difficult to state with precision the factors which led to the selection of cases for re-examination. I am informed by our present psychologists that the greater number of re-examinations asked for by them consist of cases whose I.Q. is between 70 and 80 regardless of the prognosis; that in a smaller number of cases the I.Q. is above 80 but there is reason to believe that the individual has reached the

12. In my article "A Note on the Significance of Nocturnal Enuresis", (Jour. Delinq. Mar. 1920) I have found a positive correlation between intelligence and delinquency or the feeble-minded patients of the institute.



limit of his mental development; and that the smallest number consists of cases with I.Q.'s below 70 where there is reason to believe that they will improve. However the majority of cases considered in the present paper were not re-examined at the request of the psychologists now here. Re-examinations are recommended by the psychiatrists and the psychologists, and occasionally cases are brought in for re-examination without any recommendation on our part. As a matter of fact 31 of the re-examined cases had initial I.Q.'s above 80; then there were 29 with I.Q.'s between 70 and 80 inclusive; and 9 had I.Q.'s below 70. So far as one can judge from the I.Q.'s it would seem that in the greater number of cases re-examination was recommended because it was thought that the I.Q. of the individual would deteriorate, and that is my own impression based on personal acquaintance with the different individuals who requested re-examinations.

The cases considered include all those re-examined at this institute except that a number had to be omitted for technical reasons. If, for example, the original examination had been made with the Binet 1911 scale and the re-examination by the Stanford scale it was thought best to omit the case rather than attempt corrections of dubious value. There remained 69 cases. Some of these were examined and re-examined by the Stanford scale, others by the Binet 1911. On account of the small number of cases and for other reasons which will appear it seemed useless to try to differentiate between the two scales. On the other hand the interval between examination and re-examination was only 10.25 months on the average, so that there was little reason for anticipating any difficulty on account of the inaccuracies of the 1911 scale. Besides there were only 13 cases re-examined by the 1911 scale.

The psychological examinations were made by 6 different psychologists. Only 14 cases were re-examined by the psychologist who made the original examination. Some of the cases were given more than one re-examination, but, except for the purpose of comparing the results when the same examiner made both examinations against those where the examiner and the re-examiner were different persons only one re-examination was used in the present study, so that each re-examination represents an individual. In the case of multiple re-examinations, the first preference was given to re-examinations made by the original examiner. Otherwise the re-examination made after the longest interval of time was selected.

In order to give the reader at least some basis for judging what



influence the above facts may have had on our results, the I. Q. changes for each condition are tabulated in Table II.

TABLE II.

	<i>Number of cases</i>	<i>Interval (month)</i>	<i>1st. I. Q.</i>	<i>2nd. I. Q.</i>	<i>Change</i>	<i>Difference</i>
Same Examiner	14	7.5	79.64	78.86	-0.78	
Different Exam.	59	11.0	80.00	81.45	1.45	2.23
Binet 1911	13	11.8	75.85	77.08	1.23	
Stanford	56	9.9	81.45	81.61	0.15	1.38

(4 individuals were given re-examinations both by the same and by different examiners. This accounts for the fact that there are 73 cases in this comparison and only 69 in the Stanford-Binet 1911 comparison.)

It will be seen that the "examiner" comparison shows a difference of 2.23 points. The probable error of this difference is 1.194. The chances are therefore roughly four to one that this difference is due to individual differences of the different examiners. If the case had been reversed, if there had been 59 re-examinations made by the same examiners, I would have omitted the 14 cases examined by different persons on the basis of this evidence. As it was I decided to combine them into a single group. Besides, after all, re-examinations are frequently made by different examiners in practice, so that the figures have a certain degree of practical utility on that account. The difference shown by the Stanford-Binet 1911 comparison is 1.38 points with a probable error of 1.650 points. The probability that this difference is due to chance and not to anything in either of the two scales is roughly one to one. Inasmuch as that is very far from proving that the nature of the scale did not make a difference, it might have been better to omit the 13 Binet cases. However that was not done. It will be obvious that probably no large error was caused, if indeed any error at all was introduced in this way.

The results for the group of the 69 cases described are as follows:

<i>Number of cases</i>	<i>Interval (months)</i>	<i>Age Average</i>	<i>1st. I. Q.</i>	<i>2nd. I. Q.</i>	<i>Change</i>	<i>Probable Error of Change</i>
69	10.246	11.604	80.391	80.754	0.363	0.5404

For all of the 69 cases we observe an average change in the I. Q. of 0.363 points, and the probable error of this change is 0.5404 points. It follows that a change as large as the one observed would have arisen as a chance fluctuation of sampling 65 times out of 100 even though there were no tendency of the I. Q. to change. It seems

therefore that the I. Q. of the re-examined patients of this institute exhibits no specific tendency to change.

It may be however that the younger or the less intelligent patients will tend to deteriorate, and that this tendency is balanced by a compensating tendency of the older or of the more intelligent patients to improve. Or the reverse might be the case. In order to investigate this possibility I computed the coefficient of the correlation of the amount and the direction of the change with the chronological age, and also with the initial I. Q. of the patient. The Age-Change correlation was found to be  $-0.03$  with a probable error of  $0.081$ . There is therefore a fairly strong presumption in favor of the view that the tendency of the I. Q. to change has nothing to do with the age of the individual (within the age limits of this investigation, 4 to 18 years). The I. Q. -Change correlation was found to be  $-0.145$  with a probable error of  $0.08$ . There is therefore a very slight presumption in favor of the view that the I. Q. of the less intelligent patients will tend to improve, and that of the more intelligent to deteriorate, but the presumption is too slight to be admitted as evidence.

There is another question asked by Wallin on which these re-examinations throw a certain amount of light. The question was, we may recall, — "... can we ever, and if so under what conditions, prognosticate the future intellectual development of an individual purely on the basis of his I. Q. in early childhood?" If we restate the question and ask *with how great accuracy* we can predict the future I. Q. of an individual from his present I. Q., the correlation of the initial I. Q. with the I. Q. found upon re-examination will have some bearing on the question. That correlation was found by me to be  $+0.82$  with a probable error of  $0.027$ . (If all the examinations had been made by the same examiner the correlation doubtless would have been higher.) Computing the regression equation, we obtain,  $y = 0.9085x + 7.719$ , where  $x$  is the initial I. Q. and  $y$  the I. Q. we may expect to find 10 months later. Tabulating a few values computed by means of this equation, we find:

<i>Initial I. Q.</i>	<i>After 10 months</i>
100	98.6
90	89.5
80	80.4
70	71.3
60	62.2
50	53.1



It will be noted that the high I.Q.'s decrease and that the low I. Q.'s increase. That however is not due to a peculiar characteristic of the I. Q., but arises from the general properties of any two variables, provided their coefficient of correlation is less than one, and provided their standard deviations are equal, or nearly so, as is the case for our two variables. Under such circumstances the coefficient of regression will be less than one, and a mean deviation from the mean in one variable will be associated with a smaller mean deviation from the mean in the other variable, e. g. if we had found the regression equation for estimating from the second I. Q. what the I. Q. of any individual was, or would have been, 10 months previous, we would have observed again that the high I. Q.'s decrease and the low I. Q.'s increase. The meaning of this is simply that the more extremely the I. Q. of an individual deviates from the average of his group, the more likely it is that the deviation has been somewhat less extreme in the past and will be somewhat less extreme in the future. In other words, deviations tend to regress toward the mean<sup>13</sup>.

In spite of its paradoxical sound, this is really sound common sense. Consider for example that you have seen a man run the second heat of a hundred yard dash in 9 3-5 seconds. The chances are that he has run the first heat very fast, but slower than the second. And the chances are that he will run the next heat very fast but more slowly than the second. Or, more generally, the faster he has run the second heat, the more likely it is that he has run the first more slowly and will also run the next more slowly. Or, quite generally, the more an individual deviates from the mean, the more likely it is that he has deviated less in the past and will deviate less in the future.

If the reader will carefully examine this argument, he will find the reasoning to be valid even when the deviation from the mean is not extreme. He must be careful however not to go beyond the evidence, and he must remember that the evidence is a single performance stated as a deviation from a given mean. Suppose for example that the second heat has been run in 11 seconds and that the average man can run 100 yards in 12 seconds. *On that evidence* the conclusion would be that the next heat will probably be run more slowly. But if 11 seconds is stated as a deviation from the average performance of the average *sprinter* (say 10 2-5 seconds), the conclusion would be that the next heat will probably be run faster. The

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13. Hence the name *regression equation*.



reasoning from the evidence is valid in either case. The value of the evidence is another story.

The probable error of estimate of the I.Q. values found by means of our regression equation is 3.988 or roughly 4 points. Applying this to the initial I.Q. of 100, that means that after 10 months the average I.Q. of all the patients now having I.Q.'s of 100 will be 98.6 and that half of them will be within the limits 94.6 and 102.6. In other words while 98.6 is the proper estimate, the chances that the error of estimate made in the case of any one individual will be greater than 4 points are equal to the chances that this error will be less than 4 points. Similarly the chances that the error will exceed 8 points are 1:4.5; that it will exceed 12 points, 1:21, etc.

Summing up, our conclusions are that, for patients of this institute there is no tendency of the I.Q. to deteriorate. This conclusion appears to be true regardless of the age or of the I.Q. of the patient. However the I.Q. is quite likely to change either in one direction or the other. The measure of the amount and of the probability of the change is the probable error of estimate of the regression equation, as shown above.

These conclusions are of course subject to the same criticisms as the data on which they are based. I realize just how serious these criticisms are. The paper is published because the conclusions are after all, precisely the conclusions which common sense would reach, and also in the hope that the work may have a certain methodological value by giving still another illustration of the application of standard methods to the variable data of psychology and psychiatry.

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*Author's Note:* I take pleasure in acknowledging the aid of Mr. C. M. Larcomb in the compilation of the experimental data for this report.—Curt Rosenow.

## SUCCESS RECORD OF DELINQUENT BOYS IN RELATION TO INTELLIGENCE

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That the degree of intelligence is relatively prognostic of success in various lines of endeavor among school children and others has recently been contended and demonstrated. Terman (5, p. 158) states that "if schools were careful to grade children according to mental age, it would be possible, knowing a child's I. Q.<sup>1</sup>, to predict in what grade the child would be found at any given time in the future." Even with the "constant tendency of teachers to promote children by age rather than by ability, the I. Q. nevertheless offers a fairly serviceable basis for predicting a child's later school progress," indicated by a detailed study of the record of school children and the progress that might have been expected by interpretation of intelligence examinations given several years previous. Williams (7, p. 17) has said that "it is reasonable to expect that the level of intelligence expressed in terms of age standards will eventually become the foundation for all pedagogical and vocational training." In a study of intelligence as a factor in vocational progress, Cowdery (1, p. 237) found that there was a distinct relation between "ability to progress in learning under conditions of supervised vocational instruction and the degree of native general intelligence."

However, few investigations have been made to determine the extent to which intelligence and social or vocational achievement are correlated. Pintner and Reamer (4, p. 19) in a study of mental ability and success record of 26 delinquent girls state that, as far as their group was concerned, mental tests were not necessarily prognostic of success. The following study presents data concerning the relation between general intelligence and success record of 301 boys who have been paroled, furloughed, or discharged from Whittier State School. This group includes all those who were released during the *biennium* of July 1, 1916 to June 30, 1918 and all those who were on parole from the School at the beginning of the period.

Two hundred and forty-seven of the 301 boys had been given men-

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1. Intelligence quotient, - the ratio of mental age, determined by intelligence test, to chronological age.

tal examinations by Dr. J. Harold Williams, clinical psychologist, using the Stanford Revision of the Binet-Simon Intelligence Scale. Those not examined had left the school prior to the establishment of the department of research in October, 1915, hence would not affect the distribution for comparative purposes.

Data concerning the specific occupations, social response, conduct, etc., of the group were accumulated by members of the department of research and have been tabulated and analyzed<sup>2</sup>. In determining the record of success, the classification used by Merrill (3), superintendent of the Minnesota State Public School, was adopted. His definitions of terms are as follows:

1. *Doing well*. "Those who have developed into men....of good character and are fulfilling the requirements of good citizenship, and the minor wards who are developing normally, meeting the requirements of good homes, and giving promise of success."

2. *Doing fairly well*. "Those who have been less successful or who are not developing satisfactorily but who have become or give promise of becoming at least self-supporting, respectable citizens."

3. *Doing poorly*. "Those who are regarded in the community where they live as undesirable citizens or who do not give promise of becoming useful."

The boys had been away from the School various lengths of time ranging from one month to seven years, averaging about two years. Their ages varied from 15 to 22 years, averaging about 18 years. Each boy's success record and occupation were given as it appeared on June 30, 1918, the end of the biennial period. However, in deciding to which of the three success record groups—doing well, doing fairly well, and doing poorly—any boy belonged, it was necessary to consider his conduct and vocational record for a period of time sufficient to determine the degree of success he had attained. Adequate data for classification of 43 of the 301 boys were not obtained, due principally to their having been discharged from the School and no information being available concerning their present condition. Twenty-four of this group having received a mental examination, there remain 223 boys concerning whom we have both a success record and intelligence classification.

The range of intelligence for the group was from I.Q. 47 to I.Q. 122. In general, those testing below I.Q. 75 usually considered as feeble-minded; those between 75 and 82, borderline; between 82 and

2. The specific occupations or location, details concerning classification of each boy, together with a summary of data concerning the present study appear in the Fourteenth Biennial Report of the Whittier State School, 1916-1918. pp. 96-114.



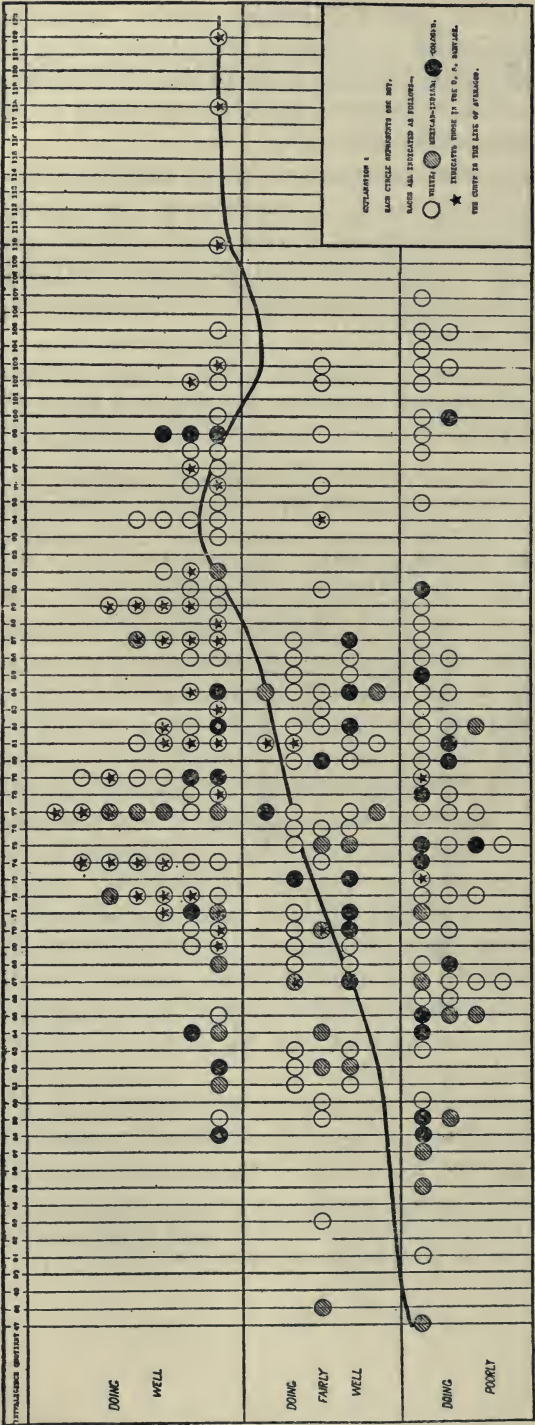


Fig. 1. Success record classification and intelligence quotient groups, showing also the line of averages indicating the relation between intelligence and success for 223 cases. (Reprinted from *Fourteenth Biennial Report, Whittier State School, 1918, p. 109.*)

92, dull-normal; between 92 and 110, average-normal; and those 110 and above, superior.

Table I gives a distribution of the 223 cases by social intelligence groups and by success record. Of the 90 boys who were doing well, 3.3 per cent were of superior intelligence; 22.2 per cent, average-normal; 22.2 per cent, dull-normal; 25.6 per cent, borderline; and 26.7 per cent, feeble-minded. Of those doing fairly well, none were superior; 7.6 per cent, average-normal; 22.8 per cent, dull-normal; 33.3 per cent, borderline; and 26.3 per cent, feeble-minded. Of those doing poorly, none were of superior intelligence; 17.8 per cent, average-normal; 13.5 per cent, dull-normal; 25.4 per cent, borderline; and 43.3 per cent, feeble-minded. Thus, it is evident that there is a distinct tendency for the boys of higher intelligence to have a better record of success than those of lower mentality.

TABLE I. SUCCESS RECORD OF 223 BOYS BY SOCIAL INTELLIGENCE GROUPS

	Total		Doing well		Doing fairly well		Doing poorly	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Superior	3	1.3	3	3.3	-	0.0	-	0.0
Average-normal	37	16.6	20	22.2	5	7.6	12	17.8
Dull-normal	44	19.8	20	22.2	15	22.8	9	13.5
Borderline	62	27.8	23	25.6	22	33.3	17	25.4
Feeble-minded	77	34.5	24	26.7	24	36.3	29	43.3
Total	223	100.0	90	100.0	66	100.0	67	100.0

This same tendency is shown by a different distribution of the same cases in Fig. 1. In this figure each circle represents one boy; its position with reference to the numbers at the top represents the boy's I.Q.; its location with reference to the success record classification indicates to which success group he belongs. The positive correlation is shown by the upward trend of the line of averages, which was obtained by smoothing a line connecting the median cases using five I.Q. groups as a unit; i.e., the median of I.Q.'s 70 to 74, 75 to 79, etc.

Table II indicates success record and the general occupational grouping of those regularly employed using the United States Census (6) classification of occupations. The kind of employments indicated by each general heading are as follows:

- I. *Agriculture, orestry and animal husbandry*—farmers, dairymen, fishermen foresters, etc.
- II. *Extraction of minerals*—miners, oil well operatives, etc.

III. *Manufacturing and mechanical industries*—mechanics, tailors, bakers, carpenters, etc.

IV. *Transportation*—chauffeurs, teamsters, railway laborers, etc.

V. *Trade*—retail dealers, bankers, real estate agents, etc.

VI. *Public service (not elsewhere classified)*—soldiers, sailors, policemen, firemen, etc.

VII. *Professional service*—physicians, lawyers, teachers, artists, etc.

VIII. *Domestic and personal service*—servants, waiters, laundry operatives, barbers, etc.

IX. *Clerical occupations*—collectors, office boys, clerks, etc.

TABLE II. OCCUPATIONAL GROUP AND SUCCESS RECORD,—  
BY NUMBER AND PER CENT

		Total	Doing well	Doing fairly well	Doing poorly
Extraction of minerals	No.	4	4	—	—
	Per cent	100.0	100.0	0.0	0.0
Public (U.S.) service	No.	58	51	5	2
	Per cent	100.0	88.0	8.5	3.5
Agriculture, forestry, and animal husbandry	No.	30	11	17	2
	Per cent	100.0	36.6	56.7	6.7
Clerical occupations	No.	11	7	3	1
	Per cent	100.0	63.7	27.2	9.1
Domestic and personal service	No.	19	7	10	2
	Per cent	100.0	36.3	51.2	10.5
Manufacturing and mechani- cal industries	No.	46	21	20	5
	Per cent	100.0	45.7	33.4	10.9
Transportation	No.	12	3	7	2
	Per cent	100.0	25.0	58.3	16.7
Trade	No.	—	—	—	—
Professional service	No.	—	—	—	—
Total	No.	180	104	62	14
	Per cent	100.0	57.8	34.4	7.8

Fifty-six of the 301 boys were in various institutions, such as industrial schools, homes for feeble-minded, jails, etc; 65 were unclassified because of having been discharged and no information being obtainable, or being dead, out of the United States, attending school, etc. There remained 180 boys employed in various occupations.

The general vocational groups are arranged in Table II in order of proportion doing well or fairly well. Of the 180 boys, only 7.8 per cent were doing poorly, while 57.8 per cent were doing well, and 34.4 per cent were doing fairly well. By comparing these percentages



with the figures for the whole group including those in institutions and others as shown in Table I,—90, or 40.4 per cent doing well; 66, or 29.6 per cent doing fairly well; and 67, or 30.0 per cent doing poorly—it is seen that those on parole and employed have a relatively high degree of success.

Table III gives the intelligence quotients of the 151 boys examined and engaged in the various occupations. Discussion of the intelligence level of those employed in the specific occupational groups will be made in connection with the data given in Table IV, which gives the coefficients of correlation between success record and intelligence level as indicated by the I. Q.<sup>3</sup> The letter *f* refers to the frequency or number of cases, *r* indicates the coefficient of correlation by Pearson's formula for each group, and *P.E.* shows the probable error. For all occupational groups a positive correlation of .19 is found<sup>4</sup>, thus indicating that there is a definite tendency for boys of a higher mentality to succeed, but it is not as marked as is usually assumed and seems to indicate other factors, probably including tem-

TABLE III. OCCUPATIONAL GROUPS AND INTELLIGENCE LEVELS AS INDICATED BY INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENTS

	Total	Not tested	Total tested	40-49	50-59	60-69	70-79	80-89	90-99	100-109	110-119	120-129
Minerals	4	1	3	—	—	—	2	1	—	—	—	—
U. S. Service	58	9	49	—	1	2	18	18	5	2	2	1
Agriculture, etc.	30	8	22	1	—	5	11	2	3	—	—	—
Clerical	11	2	9	—	—	—	—	2	4	3	—	—
Domestic service	19	4	15	1	—	1	4	5	3	1	—	—
Mfg., mech. ind.	46	5	41	—	1	8	14	6	10	2	—	—
Transportation	2	0	12	—	1	5	1	5	—	—	—	—
Trade	0	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Professional Service	0	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total	180	29	151	2	3	21	50	39	25	8	2	1

3. The use of I.Q. as an index of intelligence for this group is justified by the fact that all cases in the vocational groups were 16 years of age or over. See Doll (2, p. 67 ff.). To obtain the approximate mental age of any group use the I. Q. as the percentage ratio of mental age to 16; e. g., I.Q. 50 indicates mental age of 8 years. In this study it has been necessary to assume the constancy of the I. Q. This assumption is justified by data given by Terman (5, p. 142) who has found a correlation of .933 between earlier and later tests.

4. A coefficient of correlation of .19 was also found for the whole group, including those in institutions. This was given in Biennial Report (*ibid.* footnote p. 110) but through a typographical error the correlation appeared as 1.9.

peramental qualities, emotional control and degree of supervision afforded, have an important bearing on the degree of success.

*Extraction of minerals.* Only four boys were engaged in this occupational group and all were succeeding. The intelligence of the three boys examined was about average for the whole group.

TABLE IV. COEFFICIENTS OF CORRELATION BETWEEN SUCCESS RECORD AND INTELLIGENCE LEVEL, BY OCCUPATIONAL GROUPS

Group	f	r	P.E.
Agriculture, forestry, and animal husbandry	22	.74	.065
Public (U. S.) service	49	.15	.094
Manufacturing and mechanical industries	41	.03	.096
Clerical occupations	9	-.07	.224
Domestic and personal service	15	-.23	.164
Transportation	12	-.51	.144
Total	148	.19	.053

*Public service (not elsewhere classified).* This group includes 58 boys who were in the United States service as soldiers, sailors, or marines. The median intelligence was slightly higher than the average for all cases. The coefficient of correlation was found to be .15 (P.E. .094) indicating only a slight positive relationship between intelligence and success in United States service.

*Agriculture, forestry, and animal husbandry.* Those included under this heading were mostly engaged in farming and ranching. The average intelligence was the same as for all cases. The coefficient of correlation was .74 (P.E. .065), showing a definite positive correlation between the intelligence and the degree of success of this group. Although there were only 22 cases examined and classified, they were unselected as far as intelligence and success record were concerned. If the implications of this distribution are to be considered, the underlying theory and practice of considering farm homes and employment as especially suitable for low mentality cases should be modified. However, for all those engaged in agriculture, a relatively high proportion of successes is shown by Table II.

*Clerical occupations.* Those included in this group were delivery boys, clerks, and salesmen. The average mentality was higher than for any other group and the proportion of successes was next lower than for the agricultural group. A correlation of -.07 (P.E. .224) is shown indicating that there was practically no evident relation

between the degree of success and intelligence for this small group.

*Domestic and personal service.* The occupations classified under this heading included cooks, janitors, waiters, laundry workers, barbers, etc. The intelligence of the group averaged slightly higher than the median for all cases, although there is a wide range distribution. For the 15 cases given mental examinations, a coefficient of correlation of  $-.23$  (P. E. .164) was found, indicating a slightly negative relationship between intelligence and success.

*Manufacturing and mechanical industries.* Forty-six boys were employed in various trades such as mechanics, carpenters, bakers, tailors, etc., listed under this general heading. The median intelligence for this group is the same as for all cases. A correlation of  $.03$  (P. E. .096) was found between the intelligence and success record of this group showing no apparent relationship between the two factors.

*Transportation.* The boys included in this group were mostly chauffeurs and teamsters and had the lowest proportion succeeding of any of the general vocational groups as shown by Table II. Also the median intelligence level was lower than that for any other group. However, the coefficient of correlation was found to be  $-.51$  (P. E. .144), indicating that those who succeeded were more likely to be the boys of lower intelligence within this group.

*Trade and professional service.* No boys were engaged in occupations classified by the United States Census under these general headings.

#### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This study furnishes data concerning the occupational grouping, success record, and intelligence of boys who had left Whittier State School during a period of two years. A positive general relationship between intelligence and success record for the whole group was indicated by a coefficient of correlation of  $.19$ . Considering the specific occupational groups, however, there was a wide variation of relationship indicated; i. e., from a positive correlation of  $.74$  in the agricultural group to a negative correlation of  $-.51$  in the case of those engaged in transportation.

The study suggests that a more detailed classification of success record, an objective method of estimating degree of supervision afforded, a measure of vocational ability, as well as measurements of intelligence and temperament, must be devised before we can evaluate the importance of the various factors which bear on the probable



success record. The present study indicates that intelligence is one of the important factors and should be considered in social diagnosis, with due consideration of supplementary factors.

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# The Journal of Delinquency

Published bi-monthly by Whittier State School  
WHITTIER, CALIFORNIA

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Entered as second-class matter March 27, 1916 at the Post Office at Whittier, California, under the Act of August 24, 1912. Acceptance for mailing at special rate of postage provided for in Section 1103, Act of October 3, 1917, authorized August 3, 1918.

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Vol. V

September 1920

No. 5

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## QUOTATIONS

### THE PRESENT STATUS OF JUVENILE DELINQUENCY IN CALIFORNIA

*By the Research Staff of Whittier State School.*

(A Report Submitted to the California Conference of Social Agencies,  
Riverside, May 6, 1920.)

1. *The meaning of delinquency.* A delinquent child is one who commits a crime or who violates the law. The term is no longer applied legally in California, as the Juvenile Court Law of 1913 suspends the former differentiation between "delinquent" and "dependent" children. The law is intended to be operative, however, for any child who is delinquent or who is in danger of becoming so. The law of 1913 defines the following groups of children who may come under its provisions:

Any person under the age of twenty-one years:

1. Who is found begging, receiving or gathering alms;
2. Who has no competent parent or guardian;
3. Who is destitute;
4. Whose home is unfit;
5. Who is found wandering without suitable guardianship;
6. Who is a vagrant;
7. Who habitually visits pool rooms or saloons;

8. Who is habitually addicted to the use of liquor, cigarettes, or drugs;
9. Who habitually refuses to obey his parents or guardians;
10. Who is an habitual truant from school;
11. Who is leading, or in danger of leading, an idle, dissolute, or immoral life;
12. Who is insane or feeble-minded;
13. Who violates any law or ordinance;
14. Who is free from the custody of parents.

2. *Extent of delinquency.* Apparently juvenile delinquency occurs according to the law of averages not only in California, but throughout the United States. In 1918 there were 63,762 children in institutions for delinquents in the United States. This represents approximately 6 children per 10,000 inhabitants. In California in the same year there were 1,513 children in our three state schools, representing about 5 children per 10,000 population. This ratio holds true for practically all counties in California.

During the two years ending June 30, 1918, the three state schools in California received 709 children from 47 counties. The eleven counties sending no children are the sparsely settled and more isolated regions. They are Alpine, Del Norte, Lake, Lassen, Mariposa, Nevada, San Benito, Sierra, Sutter, Trinity and Tuolumne.

The distribution of delinquency cannot be judged with finality from statistics referring only to those committed to institutions, because there are many other children whose cases are otherwise dealt with by the courts.

There are conflicting opinions as to the circumstances upon which the commitments should be based. On the whole, however, the institution figures may be taken as representative, and are likely to be fairly accurate.

The distribution according to sex shows essentially the same conditions for California as for other states, viz., a greatly disproportionate population of boys. The latest figures for institutions in the United States show:

Boys, 78 per cent.

Girls, 22 per cent.

The figures for California for the same year (1918) show:

Boys, 88 per cent.

Girls, 12 per cent.

This consistent difference is probably due first to the greater reluctance everywhere to deal with girls as public charges, and second, to the fact that, the recognition of delinquency in girls is confined almost entirely to one kind of offense (immorality) while for boys it includes almost every kind of waywardness.

Placing a child on probation means that he is within the jurisdiction of the court and under the supervision of a probation officer. This supervision continues until the child is either released from the custody of the court or committed to an institution.

The state maintains three institutions for wards of the court, the California School for Girls, at Ventura, which receives girls up to the age of 21 years; the Preston School of Industry, at Lone, which receives boys up to the age of 21 years; and Whittier State School which receives boys up to the age of 16 years.

Commitments to these institutions are made only by the court and are usually for the remainder of the child's minority, subject to release by the institution or



by further order of the court. The average period of retention in the three schools is approximately two years. Each school maintains a parole department through which supervision is provided for pupils who are placed out before the age of 21 years. There are 85 boys on the parole list of Whittier State School at the present time.

COMMITMENTS TO CALIFORNIA STATE SCHOOLS BY COUNTIES—  
BIENNIAL PERIOD JULY 1, 1916—JUNE 30, 1918.

	Ventura	Preston	Whittier	Total	Per Cent		Ventura	Preston	Whittier	Total	Per Cent
Alameda	18	19	14	51	7.2	Placer	—	3	—	3	0.4
Alpine	—	—	—	—	—	Plumas	—	1	—	1	0.1
Amador	—	1	—	1	0.1	Riverside	4	—	9	13	1.8
Butte	1	3	2	6	0.8	Sacramento	6	15	5	26	3.6
Calaveras	—	1	1	2	0.3	San Benito	—	—	—	—	—
Colusa	6	—	1	7	0.9	San Bernardino	6	6	21	33	4.7
Contra Costa	—	1	1	2	0.3	San Deigo	8	17	13	38	5.5
Del Norte	—	—	—	—	—	San Francisco	20	29	9	58	8.2
El Dorado	—	1	1	2	0.3	San Joaquin	3	4	7	14	2.0
Fresno	8	25	13	46	6.6	San Luis Obispo	—	2	3	5	0.7
Glenn	—	—	1	1	0.1	San Mateo	—	1	4	5	0.7
Humboldt	12	3	3	18	2.5	Santa Barbara	3	1	4	8	1.1
Imperial	1	6	2	9	1.3	Santa Clara	4	6	5	15	2.1
Inyo	—	—	1	1	0.1	Santa Cruz	—	1	—	1	0.1
Kern	3	13	13	29	4.1	Shasta	—	—	2	2	0.3
Kings	—	4	5	9	1.3	Sierra	—	—	—	—	—
Lake	—	—	—	—	—	Siskiyou	—	1	1	2	0.3
Lassen	—	—	—	—	—	Solano	1	4	2	7	0.9
Los Angeles	38	100	74	212	30.2	Sonoma	1	3	—	4	0.6
Madera	—	—	3	3	0.4	Stanislaus	—	5	1	6	0.8
Marin	—	1	1	2	0.3	Sutter	—	—	—	—	—
Mariposa	—	—	—	—	—	Tehama	—	—	1	1	0.1
Mendocino	—	1	2	3	0.4	Trinity	—	—	—	—	—
Merced	2	—	1	3	0.4	Tulare	4	5	10	19	2.7
Modoc	—	2	1	3	0.4	Tuolumne	—	—	—	—	—
Mono	—	1	—	1	0.1	Ventura	—	3	—	3	0.4
Monterey	4	4	6	14	2.0	Yolo	—	1	1	2	0.3
Napa	2	—	3	5	0.7	Yuba	—	2	1	3	0.4
Nevada	—	—	—	—	—	Total	156	300	253	709	100.0
Orange	1	4	5	10	1.4						

*The study of the problem.* Several important studies of delinquent children have been made in California during the past few years. Most of these studies relate chiefly to the results of applying intelligence tests to groups of court or institution charges. Among these studies are reports by Dr. Grace M. Fernald,

from the California School for Girls, Dr. Olga Bridgman, from the San Francisco Juvenile Court, Dr. George Ordahl, from the San Jose Juvenile Court; Vinnie C. Hicks, from the Oakland Juvenile Court; Dr. E. B. Hoag and Dr. M. E. Waterhouse, from the Los Angeles Juvenile Court; Mr. Fred Allen, from the Preston School of Industry; Dr. Faber and Mr. Ritter, from the Boys and Girls Aid Society of San Francisco; and Miss Emily O. Lamb, from the Santa Barbara Juvenile Court.

*Forms of misconduct.* A recent study of 470 delinquent boys in southern California showed 13 definite kinds of offenses, which may be grouped as follows:

- I. *Offenses against property*; stealing, burglary, larceny, forgery, arson. These constitute 65.9 per cent of the total.
- II. *Offenses against the person*; highway robbery, assault, immorality, murder. These constitute 14.2 per cent.
- III. *Offenses against peace and order*; incorrigibility, truancy, vagrancy, drunkenness. These constitute 19.9 per cent.

In the group of delinquent boys studied, these individual offenses occur according to the following percentages.

1. Stealing.....	24.2 per cent
2. Burglary.....	23.4
3. Larceny.....	10.4
4. Immorality.....	8.9
5. Incorrigibility.....	7.6
6. Vagrancy.....	5.3
7. Truancy.....	4.4
8. Forgery.....	2.9
9. Assault.....	2.3
10. Highway robbery.....	1.7
11. Drunkenness.....	1.2
12. Arson.....	1.0
13. Murder.....	.4

The foregoing classification illustrates the serious nature of juvenile delinquency as a social and educational problem. The cost of social destruction involved annually is beyond estimation.

*Present methods of treatment.* The present equipment for dealing with delinquent children in California consists of three parts: (1) the juvenile court; (2) the probation office; (3) the institution. The law requires that each county shall have a superior court judge designated "judge of the juvenile court," and at least one probation officer. The number of probation officers varies according to the population of the counties and is set by law.

At Whittier State School investigations have been carried on by the Department of Research, following legislative authorizations of 1915 and 1917. The staff of the department consists of a psychologist, an assistant psychologist, a sociologist, two field-workers and clerical assistants. Studies are being made of many different problems related to the causes and prevention of delinquency, including the psychological, sociological, educational, and physical factors. Reports are available through the *Journal of Delinquency* and special bulletins. Among the published studies are:

Defective, delinquent and dependent boys.  
 Delinquent boys of superior intelligence.  
 Eugenics and mental deviation.  
 Hereditary nomadism and delinquency.  
 A guide to the grading of homes.  
 A guide to the grading of neighborhoods.  
 Feeble-mindedness and delinquency.  
 Delinquency and density of population.  
 Exceptional children in the schools of Santa Ana.  
 The intelligence of orphan children and unwed mothers.  
 Feeble-minded charity cases in California.  
 The intelligence of the delinquent boy.

The organization and development of this department have been made possible through the efforts and co-operation of Superintendent Fred. C. Nelles.

*The intelligence of delinquent children.* Some of the most important facts regarding juvenile delinquency have been disclosed recently by the results of psychological tests. Studies of different groups of children by different investigators have revealed strikingly similar results. The studies show that the intelligence of delinquent children is consistently inferior to that of non-delinquent children. Approximately one-third of the children now being dealt with as delinquent are feeble-minded. Some of the findings are as follows:

California School for Girls.....	Dr. Fernald.....	34 per cent
Preston School of Industry.....	Mr. Allen.....	35 per cent
San Francisco Juvenile Court.....	Dr. Bridgman.....	36 per cent
Los Angeles Juvenile Court.....	Dr. Hoag.....	33 per cent
San Jose Juvenile Court.....	Dr. Ordahl.....	42 per cent
San Francisco Boys-Girls.....	{Dr. Faber	
Aid Society.....	{Mr. Ritter.....	31 per cent
Whittier State School.....		30 per cent

The testing of intelligence has now become a regular procedure in the handling of public charges, wherever experienced examiners are available. Often a test requiring less than an hour will disclose facts which may otherwise have taken years to learn. There are numerous instances where failure to take into account a child's mental development has worked much injustice to the child and to society. At Whittier, where research work has been carried on for nearly six years, we consider the intelligence rating the most important single fact we learn about a new boy. The findings of the psychological laboratory supplemented by the medical examination, family history, grading of the home and neighborhood, etc., are utilized in prescribing the educational and social treatment of each boy, and furnish a safe basis for action when he is sent out on parole. The classification and training of pupils at all three of our state schools have been made more efficient by reason of intelligence tests properly supplemented. We have been forced to the conclusion that if intelligence tests were applied to all school children and their results carefully followed up, there would be fewer cases of delinquency in the courts.

*Physical aspects of delinquency.* Apparently the close relation between mental condition and delinquency is not paralleled in the case of physical development. Delinquent children are usually well-developed physically, and in good health. Dr. Hoag found the physical condition of boys examined by him in the Los Angeles



Juvenile Court to be as good as that of average public school boys. The findings at Whittier have been essentially the same, except that many boys at entrance are slightly under normal height and weight for their ages. Among the conditions which call for special treatment most often are enlarged tonsils, adenoids, defective teeth and malnutrition. It is not known to what extent these conditions are related to delinquent conduct, but it is believed that no very close relationship exists. However, good health is as essential to the development of moral character as to any other form of education.

*Heredity and delinquency.* The belief that crime and delinquency are inherited characteristics is not borne out by the most careful investigations. The research staff at Whittier has recorded the principal facts in the family histories of several hundred consecutive commitments, tracing back in many cases through five and six generations. These histories show no tendency to inherit criminality or delinquency.

These same studies, however, do show the inheritance of traits which are closely related to delinquency and crime, and which, if expressed in the children are likely to make normal social adjustments difficult. Chief among these characteristics are feeble-mindedness, psychopathic constitution, excitability, nomadism and weakened inhibitory mechanism with reference to several different forms of self-control. If feeble-minded persons were prevented from producing children, juvenile delinquency would be reduced at least one-third and there would be reason to expect a proportionate decrease in crime and other social evils.

*The racial problem.* We have in California four racial groups; the white race the negro race, the Mongolian race, and persons of Mexican and Indian descent. The negro race appears to contribute to the ranks of delinquency in relatively large proportions, the colored population of our state schools for boys being approximately 15 per cent, while the colored population of California is but one per cent. That delinquency is 15 times as common among negro boys as among white boys suggests either important causal facts among the negroes, or a difference in the attitude of the courts toward this race.

Children of Mexican and Indian descent constitute one of the most important educational and social problems in southern California. The exact proportion of these persons in the population is not known, but it is known that delinquency is common among them. The Mexican standards of living, of course, do not accord with ours, but it is more likely that intellectual differences account for most of their unsocial conduct. Mexican children do not learn readily at school, and few of them ever pass above the third grade. Recent studies have indicated that this failure to learn is not because of language difficulties, but is more likely to be due to low intelligence. Apparently, the average intelligence of Mexican children in southern California is not greater than three-fourths that of American children. If this is true, nearly one-half of the Mexican children in our schools are feeble-minded according to the standards which we apply to our own people. Any socially constructive work among the Mexicans, if it is to be successful, must take into account the important facts regarding intellectual differences.

Japanese and Chinese children present no problem in delinquency in this state. There has never been a Japanese boy committed to Whittier State School, and but two Chinese boys in the history of the School. These two were boys of low intelligence, one of whom has been transferred to the Sonoma State Home as an imbecile.

There have been a few older Japanese and Chinese boys handled by the courts, but very few in proportion to the population.

*Home and environmental conditions.* The findings of the research staff with reference to home conditions will be reported in another paper at this Conference. The most important development to report is the devising of the Whittier scales for grading home and neighborhood conditions, which have been successfully applied in the study of the previous living conditions of boys committed to Whittier. This method provides for a uniform basis of observation and judgment, and reduces to the minimum the element of personal opinion. These studies have shown that the chief social factors in the home conditions of children can be systematically evaluated, and that the method is of great value in the placing of children and in the reconstruction of homes. It is now a regular part of the procedure for each boy received at Whittier to have the home visited and graded by a field-worker of the department of research.

*The cost of delinquency.* Time and facilities have not been available to secure for this report an accurate statement of the cost of delinquency in California. The expenditure of money as a result of delinquency may be divided roughly into the following groups:

1. Direct damage caused by delinquent acts.
2. The cost of probation.
3. The cost of court procedure.
4. The cost of detention by the county.
5. The cost of state institutions.
6. The cost of private institutions receiving court cases.

Whatever the total cost may be, it is large enough to indicate that the problem of the juvenile delinquent is of serious consequence.

*The prevention of delinquency.* Not alone because of the many expenditures incident to delinquency but for the betterment of the state and the social and educational welfare of its people we should turn our efforts more in the direction of prevention. Every scientific study of delinquent children reveals the fundamental cause of misconduct to be farther back than is commonly supposed. We must not only take steps to improve our social fabric by better breeding and better living conditions, but also by an improved educational procedure by which the state will assume responsibility for the social, moral and vocational development of all children, and especially for those whose present opportunities are not commensurate with their real capacities.—*From the Social Agencies Bulletin.*

#### A PSYCHOLOGICAL STUDY OF STEALING IN JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

This paper made no attempt to consider the so-called benign types of ordinary stealing, nor was emphasis placed on fanciful stealing, such as the kleptomaniacs. On the whole the main characteristics of the persons here considered were stealing money and consciously committing other antisocial acts of a petty sort, mainly as a consequence of having no well-grounded sense of property rights. Usually these individuals showed predominantly many other poor adaptations to authority and law from earliest life, or they appeared unable to grasp thoroughly the importance of making the proper submission and compromise with parental discipline. There were some investigators who looked for the root of these trends entirely in the



make-up of the youth himself, accounting him either a moron, a subinhibited mental defective, one anti-socially inclined, or a psychopathic inferior, whatever that term might mean. Others greatly favored the idea that the parents or home environment were largely responsible for the development, if not for the actual implantation of the unruly or immoral traits of character. Usually neither group failed to indict the family stock for the delinquents found. When one undertook to investigate a series of such youths he was impressed by the fact that there were many more subtle forces at work than those usually obvious on the surface. Healy, in his investigations of mental conflicts and repressions in delinquent children, analyzed the acts of stealing money to sex delinquency and the incomplete mastery of the latter. In a long series of cases he found surprisingly often concealed sexual conflict as well as a defect in parental discipline and a lack of proper filial-parental relations. However, he mentioned no case in which antagonism to the father and desire for childish revenge upon this parent was the cause for stealing. Such a case was recently seen by the writer. This was a boy who for several years had stolen and played truant from school. The mother herself had become embittered because of her marital troubles and had gone to live with her mother. The boy stole so much from the grandmother and her immediate family that the mother had to take him elsewhere. The boy's great fault was in concealing his thoughts and daily activities from the grown people. After the more obvious faults in his home and school life were set right and the boy was permitted certain liberties and pleasures, his conduct improved, yet he still lied and was sly. A frank talk with this boy showed that he failed to make any good compromise with discipline and authority. Clark related several similar instances and also cases in which the delinquency was more complicated and seemed in part due to inability to adjust properly to the revolt at puberty. In one case the cause seemed to lie in a latent homosexual complex. From a study of these cases the writer believed that one might fairly infer, when the act of stealing occurred without apparent motive, at least sufficiently for the offense as ordinarily found, that it was probably unconsciously conditioned upon either a defect in adaptation to authority, to sexual conflict and regression at puberty, or it was a vicious homosexual theft substitution for the offender's own sex. The line of therapeutic procedure was obvious in all these cases, that was, explanation by analysis, conscious guidance, and a sympathetic after-care and training. The enormous demand and difficulty of sublimation in the homosexual victim of the theft habit made correction extremely difficult. In fact it was to be doubted whether the homosexual was ever able to sublimate sufficiently to keep him from social conflicts or from a neurosis more or less dominant through his life. One could not too forcibly insist upon the importance of studying the child's adaptation to parental authority when delinquency began at a very early age as a basis for adjustment to all law and order in the future life of the individual. Sufficient data were at hand to warrant the statement that in the infant mind one of the earliest conceptions of reality was impingement of the desires by the parent. The magic signals of crying and gesture did not move the parent to gratify the child's wish. In the persistence of this feeling of unrequited longing no doubt the child began to scrutinize with increasing wonder the reason for noncompliance on the part of the parent, and more or less rapidly interpreted it in terms of selfishness or the self-satisfied possession of things and powers which enabled the person calmly to resist the child's frantic demands. Soon the parent's



belongings were taken as symbols of the parents' potential self-sufficiency. It was not a far step to the further exercise of power for the child's satisfaction in gratifying his personal appetite in stealing fruits, or committing forbidden excesses which he believed the parent had unrestricted opportunities to enjoy. This seizing of the parental power and privilege advanced to new forms of covetousness and conquest, namely, that of possessing the magic symbol, money. In conclusion, it might be said that, even when the child's defective adaptation to authority and proper rights were made clear, there were possibly other and more genetic reasons for this early conflict, namely, the latent infantile desire to usurp the place of the father and all its possible prerogatives. While one need not neglect the study of the adult life of criminals, and especially the causes of recidivism, even there the adult pattern of the antisocial acts would probably be found to embrace in greater part the distorted mechanism of the primary life fault of early life. Clark, in closing, added his suggestions to those of Healy and Glueck to the end that the intensive study of antisocial behavior of the juvenile delinquent might enable us to correct not a few such faults before a fixed formation of habits and character had rendered the offender so helpless in adult life.—*L. P. Clark*. N.Y. Acad. Med. Ped. Sect. Apr. 11, 1918; Med. Rec. Mar. 15, 1919. (Quoted from Journal of Mental and Nervous Disease, 51-1, Jan. 1920. pp. 103-105.)

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## PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

**Bridgman, Olga.** *An Experimental Study of Abnormal Children, with Special Reference to the Problems of Dependency and Delinquency.* Berkeley: University of California Publications in Psychology. Vol. 3, No. 1. March 30, 1918. pp. 59. Price 65 cents.

A report on intelligence tests and supplementary data on 205 children sent to the psychological clinic of the University of California Hospital in San Francisco. The children came from various agencies, and are classified by the author into two groups—*delinquent* and *dependent*. These terms are properly defined, according to the facts in the case, and without regard to the legal use of the terms. The Binet scale ratings, supplemented with social data, indicate that for the delinquent group 36 per cent are feeble-minded, 32 per cent backward, and 32 per cent normal. Of the dependent group, 26 per cent are classified as feeble-minded, 39 per cent backward and 34 per cent normal. Among the "normal" groups individual cases of various abnormal conditions were found. The environmental factors, roughly classified, indicate a preponderance of unfavorable conditions. The author presents her data clearly, and avoids sweeping conclusions. She emphasizes the significant relation which mental deficiency bears to delinquency and dependency, urging wider application of psychological methods in the schools. If dependent children are to be made into useful citizens, they should be cared for before they become delinquent. "If this is to be done successfully,..... plans must be made for them, so that, when they arrive at an age when the state laws no longer provide for their maintenance, any who need special care or supervision can be provided for permanently." The study is representative of the excellent work being done by Dr. Bridgman in San Francisco. (J. H. W. )

Ellwood, Charles A. *The Social Problem: A Reconstructive Analysis*. The MacMillan Company. N. Y. 1920. pp. 289. Price \$1.75.

A revised and enlarged edition furnishing the principles of progressive social reconstruction, is presented by a well-known sociologist. The social problem is "the problem of the relations of men to one another," and is coextensive with humanity. It has been produced by "the conflict between inharmonious traditions and ideals in our culture, and the lack of adaptation of our ideas and ideals to the present conditions of life." Specifically, the volume presents a statement of the problem, historical elements, physical and biological elements, economic elements, spiritual and ideal elements, educational elements, and a final chapter concerning the solution of the social problem. In the author's view it is practically a matter of developing a fuller social intelligence and social character in the individual by means of social leadership and social education. The roots of character in the individual—heredity, general social environment, and personal education—are largely a social product and their development may be controlled. The book is a valuable contribution to social theory, is full of practical suggestions indicating specific reconstructive movements, and should be familiar to all those interested in the solution of the social problem. (W.W.C.)

Grigg, Harry H. and Haynes, George E. *Junk Dealing and Juvenile Delinquency*. Text by Albert E. Webster. Juvenile Protective Association of Chicago. Chicago Ill. (Undated) pp. 60. Price 25 cents.

How the American people apparently are equally oblivious of the two billion dollars' worth of junk resulting from the lack of thrift and the juvenile delinquency associated with the collection and sale of this material is clearly set forth in this study. It reveals interesting facts relative to the economic and social aspects of the junk business, based upon four sources of data: (1) local (Chicago) reports; (2) reports from other cities; (3) a special study of 100 delinquent boys; and (4) a study of the junk dealer himself. The boys range from 11 to 18 years of age. About 88 per cent of them testified that their misconduct was associated with the practice of "junking." This led to stealing, burglary, truancy, and sometimes to personal viciousness. The materials collected were mostly rags, bottles and metals. Few of the parents had discouraged the practice, and some even encouraged it. Most of the boys came from large, inadequately supported families. Much of the blame is placed by the writers on the present unsupervised practices of junk dealers, of whom there are 1700 daily wandering about the streets of Chicago. A municipal system is suggested and strongly urged as a preventive and economic measure. Studies of this character will help us get at the root of juvenile delinquency and will be influential in its ultimate prevention. (J. H. W.)

Nash, Alice M. and Porteus, S. D. *Educational Treatment of Defectives*. Reprinted from Training School Bulletin, November, 1919. Publications of the Training School Vineland, N. J. No. 18, November, 1919. pp. 19.

This illuminating pamphlet sets forth, briefly, the Vineland experience in the training of defective children. Since so many have been led to look to Vineland for help in solving the problems of feeble-mindedness, the publication of this experience is timely. Some valuable suggestions are made concerning the function and conduct of a special class. Many such classes in the public schools, it is pointed out, are so interested in methods of teaching that they forget why they



are teaching these children at all. Children are assigned to the ungraded room because the regular room is too "generalized," and then are tied to a scheme of manual training which is even more generalized. Teaching scraps of woodwork or basketry helps little or not at all in preparing defectives for self-support. One of the advantages of the opportunity class, however, is that it allows the teachers in the regular classes an opportunity to do better work with their defectives eliminated. Vineland has long been in the foreground in teaching, as well as in research, and persons interested in special class work will find this booklet well worth possessing. (J. H. W.)

**National Child Welfare Association.** *Child Welfare Handbook.* New York. (Undated) pp. 35. Price 50 cents.

This handbook embodies the aims of the National Child Welfare Association and a history and explanation of its chief *modus operandi*—the child welfare exhibit movement. The aim of the Association is to guarantee to every child "his birthright of health, education, play and love." Emphasis is laid upon the fact that child welfare is an integral part of general welfare and cannot be dissociated from it. As such, it commands the interest of every citizen. A Child Welfare Questionnaire is given which includes vital points on which every community should be informed concerning its children. The *modus operandi*—the child welfare exhibits—was planned on the principal that pictures create a greater motor impulse than books. These exhibits have proven effective in rousing community interest in this important and far-reaching subject. Large illustrations, reproducing the twenty sets of exhibit posters, are accompanied by brief supplementary explanations regarding the value and use of each particular set. These sets begin with one on pre-natal care and conclude with good and bad housing and a set for campaign purposes. Each set includes anywhere from six to thirteen posters which drive home the truth with graphic pictures and well chosen phrases. Every phase of child welfare is included—mental, moral, physical and environmental. The handbook, in addition, outlines the method of using these for exhibition purposes. The value of this method of enlisting the interest and efforts of any community in child welfare is indeed great. The offer of exhibit material and expert assistance throws open to any group this opportunity for increasing work along child welfare lines, and certainly should be embraced. (E. K. B.)

**Porteus, S. D.** *Porteus Tests—The Vineland Revision.* The second of the 1919 series of publications from the Research Department of the Training School at Vineland, N. J. September, 1919. Price 25 cents.

An illuminating description of the Porteus intelligence tests, with standardization data and complete directions for their use. The painstaking work with which Dr. Porteus has perfected and applied these tests adds considerably to their scientific value. The interesting feature of the scale is that the material presented is uniform, but of increasing difficulty from year to year. By passing through a graded series of maze problems, the subject's level of performance may be compared with those of children between the ages of 3 and 14 years. Although intended to supplement the Binet series, Dr. Porteus believes that the maze test reveals in many cases a more accurate intelligence score than can be obtained by the Binet method. This is due, it is claimed, chiefly to the use of uniform material, to the



absence of language requirements, and to the fact that no special intellectual abilities are called into play. The tests correlate high with the Binet tests, with occupational progress, and with apparent social fitness. In scholastic ability, however, the Binet correlation is higher than the Porteus. Several case histories are given to illustrate the diagnostic value of the maze tests where the Binet ratings are too high. The new scale findings merit careful consideration and more extensive comparisons. (J. H. W.)

**Seattle Juvenile Court.** *Report for the Year 1919.* Seattle, Wash. pp. 19.

This report contains statistical tables and a brief analysis of the sources, character, and disposition of cases brought to the Seattle Juvenile Court during the year. Details concerning sex, offenses, age, parental conditions, source of complaints, etc., are given. There is also a statement concerning the administration of the Mothers' Pension Act providing for the children of destitute mothers. (W. W. C.)

**Thompson, Laura A.** *Laws Relating to Mothers' Pensions.* Childrens' Bureau. Washington. 1919. pp. 316.

A revision and extension of a report on the same subject submitted in 1914, now including a compilation of laws relating to "mothers' pensions" in the United States, Canada, Denmark, and New Zealand. Following an introduction summarizing the legislative history, general details of the laws and the trend of legislation, copies of the laws, rules and regulations operative in each state or country are given. An extended list of references covering forty-nine pages is also furnished. The extent of the movement to provide for the support of dependent children in their own homes out of public funds is shown by the adoption of laws in all but nine states, and indicates a widely held and deeply rooted conviction that no child should be deprived of home life and a mother's care on account of poverty alone. (W. W. C.)

**U. S. Bureau of Education.** *Industrial Schools for Delinquents, 1917-18.* Bulletin, 1919, No. 53. Washington: Government Printing Office. pp. 53.

An excellent report, giving important data concerning industrial schools for delinquents, prepared by the statistical division of the Bureau, under the supervision of H. R. Bonner. The report is illustrated with charts, giving for the first time graphical comparisons of the different states. The statistics are obtained from the reports of 135 schools, representing a total enrollment of 49,660 boys and 14,102 girls. The proportion of children committed to these institutions is rapidly increasing in comparison with the growth of the whole population. The number of white inmates has increased 170 per cent since 1900, and the number of colored inmates 215 per cent. It is shown that 81 per cent of all inmates are receiving instruction in school classes, and 68 per cent are learning a trade. The number of teachers since 1900 has increased 111 per cent, although the number of inmates increased 167 per cent. In 1918, 53 per cent of the teachers were women, and 42 per cent were men. The average valuation of property per pupil is \$1645. Wyoming heads the list with an average valuation of \$5069; Arizona, \$3071; New York, \$2473; Minnesota \$2419. California ranks eighth, with an average valuation of \$1916. The average per capita expenditure is \$287; Louisiana, California, Montana, Idaho and Oregon leading in the order named. The report will be welcomed by all persons interested in this important phase of public education. (J. H. W.)

U. S. Department of Labor. *Children's Bureau. Minimum Standards for Child Welfare.* Bureau Publication No.62. Government Printing Office. Washington, D.C. 1919. pp. 15.

As a result of the Washington Conference, May 5-8, 1919 and subsequent regional conferences held at the request of the President of the United States for the purpose of formulating and publishing standards for the better protection of children, minimum standards for child welfare were made. These standards consider the question from three angles: (1) child labor and education; (2) public protection of the health of mothers and children; (3) children in need of special care. The first group of standards, dealing with child labor and education, so regulates the age, physical condition and education of the working minor and the hours, wage and conditions of his employment as to correlate his equipment with the work undertaken, thus securing maximum future energy and ability for the child. A plan for the administration of these regulations is offered. The second group deals with the physical and medical care necessary for maternity cases, infants and pre-school children, school children and adolescent children. The plans for the care of these cases are so worked out that the child receives constant watchfulness from the prenatal period through adolescence. Provision is made for the physically exceptional child. The third group of standards deals with the "children who are in need of special care by reason of unfortunate home conditions, physical or mental handicap, or delinquency." The standards for this group consider the economic needs as related to the maintenance of the home, children's institutions and the principles governing child placing, with emphasis on the necessity of state supervision of these latter two, care of children born out of wedlock, mental hygiene and the care of mentally defective children, Juvenile courts and rural social work. In conclusion, the urgent need for more scientific information regarding child welfare is pointed out. These standards, while minimum, are nevertheless, comprehensive; every phase of the child's welfare is considered with a view to conserving and developing him to a level at least approximating his maximum. No student of hygiene, education or social welfare would wish the elimination of a single one of these "minimum standards." They show how much needs to be done and, at the same time, form a practical working basis. (E.K.B.)

Wines, F. H.: *Punishment and Reformation.* New edition, revised and enlarged by Winthrop D. Lane. New York. Thomas Y. Crowell Co., pp. 481. Price \$2.50.

An excellent and timely revision of Professor Wines' well known book. Dr. Lane adds the more important findings of recent years, and thus brings the treatise up-to-date scientifically. The method of revision, by which certain whole sections of the original are replaced by sections of new material, is especially commendable. The main thesis that human conduct, good and bad, is the result of the interaction of psychological and social factors, is in accord with the present day trend of thought. We must first know the individual offender, then study the ways in which his individuality has reacted to the various complexities of our social organization. The fundamental social forces in prevention are the home, the school, the church and the community spirit. These must be brought into proper relationship to the end that each individual may have normal opportunities befitting his capacities and tendencies. The complete elimination of crime, the author thinks, is afar off. The application of known preventive methods, however, has already yielded promising results. (J.H. W.)



## PERIODICAL LITERATURE

**Alcatraz.** In common with many other prisons, the Pacific branch of the U. S. Disciplinary Barracks at Alcatraz Island has been largely bound by routine, and, until recently, has not been interested in men's differences or their individual personalities and traits. Prisons in this country are generally built upon the notion that all criminals come to their cell doors equal or, at least, require the same kind of disciplinary control. The ideal treatment of the offender is regarded to be to coerce or frighten him into virtue, which consequently establishes what may be called reformation through misery. Rules governing conduct at Alcatraz are fairly minute, numerous and rigid enough to cause constant annoyance and irritation. The rules are often violated either openly or secretly and have several bad effects including (a) opportunity for "riding" prisoners by guards, and (b) actual repression of men so that initiative, choice, the power of judgment, and of assuming responsibility are so curtailed as to make automatons of the men. The rules at Alcatraz are so rigid that more than half of the men become offenders within the prison.—*Winthrop D. Lane.* Survey, XLIV-14, July 3, 1920. pp. 470-472. (W. W. C.)

**Defects Found in Drafted Men.** This article gives some results of the examinations for military service during the recent war. The total number of men involved in the study was about 2,500,000. "This number constitutes practically all of those rejected by local boards and about two-thirds of those examined at mobilization camps, but it is representative of all." Most of the men were between the ages of 21 and 30. The figures are considered in turn; first, the relative frequency of the defects; second, the classification of men on the basis of these defects; third, the relation of the defects to geographical distribution, occupation, and race. The authors found that 408 men out of every 1000 examined were defective in some way. The defect occurring most frequently was that of a mechanical sort, involving bones and joints, appendages, hands and feet, constituting about 39 per cent of all defects. The defect taking second place was that of the sense organs, comprising about 12 per cent. Next in order of frequency were tuberculosis and venereal disease, together constituting 11 per cent. The geographical distribution of venereal diseases showed a concentration in the southern states where the high susceptibility of the negroes plays a part. Mental and nervous defects comprised about 6 per cent, the commonest forms being epilepsy and mental deficiency. Epilepsy is more prevalent in rural districts and in the older settled parts of the country. Mental deficiency was found especially prevalent in rural districts and more of it in the southern states than in the northern. Rhode Island is first or second in alcoholism while Virginia is among the first six states in mental deficiency and mental alienation. As a whole, the middle-western states present a more fit group. "Altogether it is clear that fully 90 per cent of the defects found are not of such a nature as to interfere seriously with the man's performing services of the highest order in civil life."—*C. B. Davenport and Albert G. Love.* Scientific Monthly, X-1 and X-2, Jan. and Feb. 1920. pp. 5-25 and 125-141. (E. K. B.)



**A Graphic Method of Measuring Civilization, and Some of its Applications.**

In order to secure a fair measure of civilization personal opinions must be eliminated and some means for measuring the range of variation in each community must be found. Government census reports afford the most data. The statistics that may be used might be roughly divided into two classes, namely, institutional and individual. The former include such data as wealth, manufacturing, banking, insurance, number of newspapers, etc. The latter includes number of persons per area, age, marital condition, education, occupation, etc. Out of this great mass of information that on education and occupation appears as the most promising criteria. The difficulty with the first of these two criteria is the fact that the census has only concerned itself with literacy or illiteracy, failing to take into account any gradations of education aside from the bare ability to read and write. The difficulty with occupations as a criterion is also the method of census taking wherein no cognizance of type or quality of work has been made; the listing as to industry is the only classification. A suggested grading is offered of ten groups according to economic standing. The application of this grading plus an educational rating would give the civilization number or coefficient of an individual. One graph giving education curves for teachers and prisoners shows the education curve for the former to be consistently higher. A second graph, dealing with occupation only, shows the curve based on the occupations of the first thousand individuals in *Who's Who in America* to be the highest. The next highest is that of college graduates and the lowest that of negroes. The curve of college graduates is higher than that of non-graduates and "illustrates graphically the effect of higher education." In conclusion, the writer points out the value of the perfection of such a scale; it would be especially helpful in determining problems of sovereignty, etc.—*Roland M. Harper*. *The Scientific Monthly*, X-3, Mar. 1920. pp. 292-305. (E. K. B.)

**Intelligence and Mental Tests.** Intelligence, or what is measured by the tests, should not be assumed to be a mental factor or force in some way related to a body and adjusting that body to certain objects in contact with it. Rather, intelligence should be considered as a specific mode of adjustmental response. May not the prepsychological problem of individual differences lie in the biological stock of the individual? A person's psychological conduct is greatly influenced by his neuroglandular organization and by the perfection or degree of development of his receptor systems. A knowledge of the complex and complete organization of the human individual will clear up many problems of temperament, character, capacity, traits and genius. Emphasis should be placed upon the actual response as it can be studied. Unfruitful attempts to seize upon a hypothetical faculty will thus be avoided and a more positive understanding of actual psychological phenomena be attained. The new direction thus given to psychology will obviate speculation as to whether the "mind" is organized so that its acts are related or unrelated. We would learn that all intelligent acts must be specific, for our reaction patterns are definite, concrete responses. Improvements in our responses to our surroundings are induced by variations in the objects and their relations, to which we must adapt ourselves. The acquisition of numerous response patterns gives the individual the qualities of intelligence among which are variety, independence, agility and rapidity of response.—*J. R. Kantor*. *Journal of Philosophy, Psychology and Scientific methods*, XVII, May 1920. pp. 260-268. (J. M.)

**Facial Expression as an Index of Mentality.** The use of physiognomy as a branch of psychology has fallen into curious neglect and ill-repute, notwithstanding its study by such creditable scientists as Bell, Darwin, and Galton. In everyday life it is a trusted clue to mental character. Yet its validity has hardly been tested by extended study. This report describes some preliminary experiments calculated to sound the field, and to stimulate systematic observation of expressions which indicate character. The data include (1) observations made during interviews, (2) studies of photographs, and (3) independent judgments of teachers. The subjects were school children ranging from 10 to 14 years of age, and adults ranging from 20 to 40. Twenty-nine qualities were observed, including physical, intellectual, and emotional traits. These were carefully defined, and graded as accurately as possible. The correlations, for the most part, are low. Of 87 coefficients only five are above .50. These are *physical vitality*, *neurotic tendencies*, *emotionality*, *joy*, and *fear*. The correlation for *honesty* is .17; for *attention*, .24; for *general intelligence*, .39. These represent correlations between the psychologist's observations and the teachers' judgments. The judgments based on photographs are distinctly inferior. In all judgments the emotional qualities are more easily detected than intellectual and moral qualities. On the whole, the study indicates the possibility of a teachable technique.—*Cyril Burt*. *Child Study*, XII-1, June 1919. pp. 1-3 (J. H. W.)

**Science and the State.** The war has done much to increase in the mind of the public the recognized value of scientific research. Evidence of this is found in the fact that the advancement of science is placed in the forefront of the British Labor Party's political platform. The British government has also shown that the advancement of science is to be incorporated into part of its regular functions. Coming to the United States we find that "the federal government has for years employed a number of agencies for carrying on scientific work of every description." This indicates that our government recognizes the value of scientific work and the "realization by the average citizen that science is a necessity and entitled to support by the government." In 1917 it was estimated that four million dollars was expended for various scientific undertakings, relating chiefly to agriculture in all its various ramifications. While it is realized that scientific work is valuable, the available resources of men, money and opportunity are not being fully utilized. A revision of the treatment of men of science, especially those at the head of laboratories, should be instituted. The matters of permitting initiative, of tenure of office, and of recognition of merit demand immediate attention in order to place our scientific research upon a secure footing and one calculated to produce the fullest results.—*William Salant*. *Scientific Monthly*, X-4, Apr. 1920. pp. 372-377. (E. K. B.)

**The Educability Level.** The aim of this experiment was to determine as far as possible the number of children, in a kindergarten class in one of the poorest quarters of the city, who would be able to do the work of the first grade in the coming fall. The method used was teaching the children by means of test material form-boards, puzzles, color cubes, sticks, primers and anagrams. Teaching was continued just far enough to determine the child's ability to progress. There were thirteen subjects. All were above five years, four were six, one was seven. All had been in kindergarten during the current year, some during the year before



and one for two years before. Six of the group were found able to do school work. Seven had not sufficient physical or mental development to warrant their placement in a regular grade.—*Gladys G. Ide*. *Psychological Clinic* XII, 5-9, May 15, 1919. pp. 179-195. (J. M.)

**Why Does Our Public Fail to Support Research?** This failure is caused by the lack of any real comprehension of what research means. "Research and teaching are the twin functions of the university," but research is pushed aside because not even the entire university faculty and student body, let alone the average citizen, have grasped the vitalness of research to real progress. "Scientific research is not a thing isolated; it is part of the necessary work of the world and when that is once understood, it will take its place along with our other normal activities." The university man must be made to realize this since "reforms start with individuals, rather than with multitudes" and it is right that the university man should take the lead. But this is not enough. It must be further realized that "it is nonsense to say that the scientific man must be a genius. . . . he is usually a man (or woman) of rather ordinary ability, somewhat above the average, who will work when suitably fed, housed and clothed." When it is generally understood that scientific research can assist in the creation of wealth, banishment of disease and illumination of the mind, "it will be regarded as the indispensable friend of mankind."—*T. D. A. Cockerell*. *Scientific Monthly*, X-4, Apr. 1920. pp. 368-371. (E. K. B.)

**Tests of Discrimination and Multiple Choice for Vocational Diagnosis.** The subjects were disabled soldiers. The multiple choice apparatus was one made by Professor Porter. The problem: to learn the numbers of twelve keys in random order. Results were scored according to the number of errors, (1) unclassified, (2) illogical, (3) perseverative, (4) both illogical and perseverative. The apparatus for discrimination was that constructed by Professor McComas. The problem here discrimination of four colors. The men were also given the army Alpha test, the cube test, (Pintner's standardization,) the Healy picture completion test II. Correlation between the discrimination test and Alpha show that, as a basis for vocational selection, the army test would have been unfair to some of the men. Two of the lowest in Alpha were among the highest in discrimination and the man who stood next the highest in Alpha was one of the lowest in discrimination. Although quick and well educated he was easily excited and confused under stress. From the limited observations it appeared that the cube test tried out quickness of perception and immediate retention; the discrimination test more complicated memorizing and speed of judgment under stress; the picture completion test the ability to notice and to retain important details and to choose consistently with both immediate and previously observed factors of a situation, while the multiple choice test seemed to try out similar abilities with reference to more abstract factors. These tests, together with several for motor ability have proved of considerable value in recommending vocational courses for disabled men.—*Dagny Sunne*. *Psychological Bulletin*, XVI-8, Aug. 1919. pp. 262-267. (J. M.)

**Minutes of Meeting of the Committee on Mental Hygiene.** Suggestions for future work include a plan for work with psychopathic children. "It has been said that future preventive work in mental hygiene lies to a large extent in the schools." It is not yet known experimentally whether the neurotic child should have special class treatment or not. Neither is it known to what extent intensive social service



work can be of value in adjusting these children to their conditions or, in some cases, in adjusting their conditions alone. The plan would involve (1) the use of clinic periods and the attention of one of the attending psychiatrists; (2) a social service worker who would go into the schools as a visiting teacher; (3) equipment for psychological tests; (4) a physician to give physical examinations; (5) the selection of a school where poverty is not the chief problem and where there are available some community facilities such as playgrounds, etc. This study would present valuable material along the line of mental hygiene.—Report in Ungraded, V-4, Jan. 1920. pp. 84-87. (E. K. B.)

**The Function of Part-time Continuation Schools.** Such schools designed for those who go to work at minimum age permitted by law are concessions to unfortunate social conditions which make early employment necessary or to the restlessness of certain children who find the routine of the full time school repugnant to their tastes. Except for the delinquent and the defective the continuation school for children under eighteen years of age should be regarded as a merely temporary expedient. The perpetuation of ignorance and illiteracy, also difficulty in solving the problem of democracy are strengthened by the insidious arguments that high school education is a privilege reserved for the few able to profit by it and that high school education should be limited since too much education would rob society of menial task workers. Special schools should be provided for the defectives unable to complete normal work. A barrier is raised against the progress of those whose education is blocked by the absorption which industry exerts on too available cheap labor. The continuation school is but a temporary substitute for the larger opportunity of full time schools, especially with its present incompletely organized aims and methods. Fundamental is the proposition that universal and compulsory high school education for all except defectives should be the goal of our educational system. Meanwhile, the continuation school will best serve the purposes of democracy by fitting its students for the two vocations, citizenship and home-making, using a large amount of broadening idealism and leaving the improvement in manual skill for shop hours.—*Thomas Warrington Gosling*. *School and Society*, XI-281, May 15, 1920. pp. 571-575. (K. M. C.)

**"American Made."** "Of all the products of American enterprise and ingenuity brought out by the last four epoch-making years, none has challenged the interest of the thinking world more decisively than the American plan of venereal disease control." This plan is four-fold in its nature, comprising law enforcement, medical measures, education and recreation. The author gives a brief summary of the measures adopted in other countries, thus showing that America is unique in her inclusion of all four methods of prophylaxis. Suppression and not segregation is the key-note of the law enforcement phase while the elimination of the quack doctor and the substitution of free medical attention where necessary is the key-note of the medical measures phase. Education should be given in both the schools and at home with recreation as a faithful and valuable concomitant for the outlet of that surplus energy.—*Marjorie Delavan*. *Public Health* (of Michigan), VIII-2, Feb. 1920. pp. 61-64. (E. K. B.)

**Some New Problems for Psychiatric Research in Delinquency.** It is no longer necessary to dwell upon the value of careful psychiatric examinations of prisoners

and persons accused of crime. The work was started solely for the purpose of detecting individuals for whom we have more appropriate places than prisons and reformatories. Merely to list the clinics dealing with crime and delinquency would indicate the rapid growth of this method of studying crime. With the entry into the war the psychiatric workers started in a new field. They worked much along the same line with military offenders. In spite of the examinations in camps the A. E. F. contained many men of less than normal intelligence and they were often exposed to unbelievable fatigue. Any company commander who saw service in France will say that he did not hold his men responsible at all times to the same standards of accountability as in the cantonment at home. A mental examination preceded not only the execution but the trial in all serious cases for punishment. With the release of psychiatrists from military service it should be possible to extend their activities. It would be logical to effect a practical co-operation between psychiatric clinics in prisons, and those in magistrates' and higher criminal courts. It would make the investigations available to both places and the same methods of treatment could be applied to the delinquent individual at many different steps in his career. We must now make full use of the resources for research in the field of criminology and not content ourselves with performing the practical tasks, while we reserve the most highly developed tools in our possession for those whose disorders of conduct the world has agreed to call illness.—*Thomas W. Salmon*. *Mental Hygiene*, IV-1, Jan. 1920. pp. 29-42. (M. S. C.)

**A Functional Interpretation of Human Instincts.** The functional standpoint makes necessary a careful discrimination between the simple, direct response of an instinct and the more complex reaction pattern of instinctive behavior which latter includes most of our actual responses. As to the specificity of instincts, if we take concrete human behavior to be the province of psychology we quickly recognize that instincts are necessarily specific in their functioning but that the adult individual has no instincts. A study of the relation of emotions to instincts shows the emotion to be an interrupting form of response which dissociates the customary reaction systems leaving the way open for a comparatively simple form of behavior to function. Three obstructive tendencies hinder psychological thinking. (1) Metapsychological speculation giving rise to an attitude that maintains unknowables which prevent the adequate investigation of psychological phenomena. (2) Biological abstractionism which obscures the extremely dynamic character of human behavior by assuming that the deep seated action patterns developed out of social processes are permanent elements of human character. (3) Psychological simplification which reduces instinctive conduct to the functioning of psychical dispositions or impulses. A functional view-point avoids these insidious tendencies and may, especially in the matter of instinctive conduct, lead to a scientific interpretation of an important series of psychological adaptations.—*J. R. Kantor*. *Psychological Review*, XXVII-1, Jan. 1920. pp. 50-72. (J.M.)

**Psychopathic Clinic of the Children's Court of the City of New York. Second Annual Report.** During the year 1918 a careful mental and physical examination was made of the 1,032 children sent from the city's five children's courts. The judges sent to the clinic those cases which they recognized as not being normal mentally. They were classified in 7 groups, the normal, retarded, mentally deficient, constitutionally psychopathic inferiors, psycholitic group, psychoneuroses and



neuroses, and epileptic. Of the 1,082 cases examined, 82 per cent were classified in terms of deviation from the normal. The ages of these children varied from six to thirteen years. There were 37.2 per cent who had a favorable environment; 49.8 per cent unfavorable and 13 per cent the environment was unknown. There were 38.6 per cent who had an unfavorable heredity; 42.5 per cent was favorable, while 6.1 per cent was doubtful, and 12.8 per cent unknown. The heredity was considered unfavorable when syphilis, insanity, mental deficiency, epilepsy, tuberculosis or alcoholism was found among the ancestors. Of 268 recidivists 39 were normal; 118 were retarded; 73 were feeble-minded; 18 were constitutional psychopathic inferiors; 8 were psychotic; 17 were psychoneurotic and 3 were epileptic. A number of interesting charts are given showing the grade reached by those examined and the various types of offenses. The recidivist presents the real problem in criminology and the most advantageous place to begin a study of recidivism is in the children's courts with pre-adolescent children.—*Helen Montague*. *Mental Hygiene*, III-4, Oct. 1919. pp. 650-669. (M. S. C.)

**An Analytic View of the Basis of Character.** First, one must postulate the existence of the unconscious mind as the source of intuitive knowledge, the germinal place of mental and emotional forces. Second, one must recognize the presence of psychic energy, libido in the sense of any passionate interest or form of life-force. Third, one must understand the bi-sexual predisposition of any individual. There is no exclusively masculine man nor feminine woman. Fourth, one must take into account the three normal components of sexuality, auto-erotism, homo-sexuality and hetero-sexuality, each essential in the development of the individual. Of these the auto-erotic is the first to develop. It is gradually sublimated and is of the highest value, being embodied in desires for knowledge, for excellence in sport and work, for "creation out of self." Auto-erotic practices which may crop out during childhood or youth should not be taken too seriously. They may merely indicate some personal question demanding an answer. The component which presents the greatest problem in the somewhat out-of-balance world of today is that of homo-sexuality. Normally a most useful and necessary tendency, it may become fixed because in the absence of personal effort and development it is the easiest expression of love that life offers to the individual. For the solution of this problem it is necessary that any person concerned in the guidance of others should have a clear insight into the content of his own sexuality both conscious and unconscious. The hetero-sexual component is present throughout life. A possible blocking of this impulse may come from a too passionate devotion of the child for the parent of the opposite sex. This may lead later to dependence and a lack of adaptability. The dangers in all these directions are greatest when the underlying sex elements remain unconscious.—*Constance Long*. *Psychoanalytic Review*, VII 1, Jan. 1910. pp. 1-14. (J. M.)

**The Legal Treatment of Family Desertion.** That the family is the basis of society and that whatever affects its stability also affects the stability of the nation is a truth generally acknowledged. Anything which operates to destroy the family must be handled and suppressed by society. Family desertion is becoming more common and many states have enacted laws making it a criminal offense. Under the common law desertion of wife or children was a matter for the civil court under whose provisions the deserter could not be brought before it if he had



left its jurisdiction. For this reason family desertion has, in nearly all the states been made a statutory crime thus enabling the court to reach out and bring back the deserter. To further carry this out, Federal laws have been enacted to make possible interstate rendition of family deserters and a treaty is now pending with Great Britain whereby family desertions will become an extraditable offense. With the establishment of this treaty America will offer no refuge for the deserter and provide machinery whereby he may be forced to realize his responsibility.—*Frank L. Baldwin*. *National Humane Review*, VIII-4, April 1920. pp. 66-67. (E. K. B.)

**Medico-Psychological Study of Delinquents.** The most fundamental needs of the courts which deal with delinquents is the knowledge of the qualities of the human beings about whom a decision is to be made. Medico-psychology should play an important part in the interpretation. An interesting case of an eleven year old boy, who was a night vagrant, is cited. To the judge the boy appeared to be normally advanced in school; his physical appearance seemed normal; and his parents were apparently decent people. The boy shows no other delinquencies and is devoted to his parents. Puzzled, the judge may continue the case for further information. The point of view of the medico-psychologist may now be considered. The boy may have some significant defect or irritative condition which might have a causative relationship to his troubles. Next a psychological study should be made of the mental aspects of the boy's life, he may be mentally defective, or psychopathic. Queer phases of his "forgetting" now appeared and it developed that he had unfortunate sex affairs. With these facts ascertained the reconstructive measures may be undertaken. There must be a breaking up of old associations and new measures adapted to re-education. A good technic of medico-psychology carried out with sympathy and thoroughness will contribute greatly to the effectiveness of courts who attempt the solution of the problems of delinquency.—*William Healy and Augusta F. Bronner*. *Mental Hygiene*, III-3, July, 1919. pp. 445-452. (M.S.C.)

**Probation as a Means of Reform.** Last year in New York City 9,303 offenders came under the supervision of the probation officers. More than 77 per cent of these were family cases. "In salvaging the mother or father of the family it is the duty of the probation officer to care for the children also. He must look after the children until their natural protectors are ready to resume that function." The probation officers, by keeping families together and men at employment, not only save the city a financial burden but protect the child from the evil of the broken home. Ernest H. Shidler of the University of Chicago, in a study of 7,598 inmates of reformatories and industrial schools found that 50.5 per cent of delinquent boys came from broken homes.—*National Humane Review*, VIII—5, May 1920. p. 87. (E. K. B.)

**Moral Defectives.** This term embraces persons who commit unsocial acts by reason of mental defect. It includes two groups: (a) offenders who are feeble-minded; and (b) offenders who are defective mentally, but otherwise than intellectually. The first group constitute the defective delinquent class, and should be dealt with as feeble-minded. Individuals of the second group may be of normal intelligence, may make good records at school, and exhibit many symptoms of normality. Their defect lies in their lack of appreciation of social and moral values.

If they steal, lie, or commit sex offenses, they see no reason why they have done wrong. Their actions follow their instinctive impulses, unchecked by normal consideration of future consequences. They make heavy ultimate sacrifices for the sake of temporary gratification. The classification does not include persons whose delinquencies are of a temporary nature, or those for whom training and improved environment are corrective. The defect must be permanent; it must have existed from an early age; and it must be undeterred by punishment. It thus includes a large group of recidivistic criminals and delinquents for whom training is ineffective. These should be dealt with as defectives, in the same way in which we deal with the feeble-minded. It is the intention of the English Mental Deficiency Act to include this group with the mental variants in need of permanent segregation.—A. F. Trelgold. *Studies in Mental Inefficiency*, I-1, Jan. 1920. pp. 4-8.

(J. H. W.)

**Conference for the Protection of Children Born out of Wedlock.** Conferences were recently held in Chicago and in New York under the auspices of the Children's Bureau of the U. S. Department of Labor, in co-operation with the Inter-City Conference on Illegitimacy with a view to standardization of legislation for the protection of illegitimate children. The rights and responsibilities of the child, the mother, the father and the state were emphasized. The minimum standards agreed upon were: (1) birth registration of all illegitimates and the adjudication of paternity; (2) reporting of questionable cases to the proper public agency; (3) establishment of paternity by means of civil action if necessary; (4) requirement of the father to provide financial support for the child during its minority; (5) establishment of the child's right of inheritance and of paternal name; (6) recommendation that the mother care for the child; (7) need of state departments whose duties shall include supervision and care for such children and such mothers.—National Humane Review, VIII-4, April 1920. p. 67. (E. K. B.)

**The Illinois Idea in Prison Management and Parole.** Men committed under the Illinois parole law are required to serve at least double the time that was served under the old definite sentence law and an additional year on parole. At a recent meeting of the American Prison Congress it was practically acknowledged that the Illinois system was the best in the country. Of the offenders committed to Joliet Prison, 88 per cent are first offenders. In 1894 under the old law, the total number of commitments was twice that of last year and the per cent of first offenders was 82. It has been claimed that 90 per cent of the crime in Chicago is committed by paroled men, but the facts do not warrant such a statement. The paroled men are given adequate supervision which is worked out in full co-operation with the Chicago police force. Before the enactment of the parole law 17.5 per cent of those committed to Joliet were repeaters; now the repeaters comprise 11 per cent. In the effort to prepare prisoners for the return to society it was found that 15 per cent constituted a definitely bad factor, 25 per cent desired to get on their feet once more and the remaining 60 per cent were led by whatever element was in control. The Illinois idea of prison management is to first bring about the sort of classification of prisoners that will make possible individual attention and treatment where it is needed, "that will enable prisoners to make such progress toward fitting themselves for citizenship as they are inclined to make, with the assistance of the prison officials." The new prison provides for four distinct classes of pris-



oners, with opportunities for them to adapt themselves to a progressive merit system. Upon entrance they are assigned to a hospital section where diagnosis, mental and physical, is made. Those found to be mentally deficient are segregated and cared for in separate quarters. The normal prisoners pass on to the second section where close observation reveals their type of response and readiness for promotion to the third section. It is in this last section that they become eligible for consideration for parole or pardon. Two other groups are available through which the prisoner may pass before going out—the small villages with cottages and the farm. Each of these is supervised, but the second less than the first, and it is from the farm that the prisoner goes out on parole.—*John L. Whitman*. *Institution Quarterly* (Illinois), XI-1, March 31, 1920. pp. 6-12. (E. K. B.)

**Notes from State Training School for Girls, Geneva.** The school department of the State Training School of Illinois consists of nine grades, including first year high school and a commercial class. Twenty per cent are in the fifth and sixth grades, eighteen per cent in the seventh and eighth grades and twelve per cent in commercial and high school. It is the intention of the school to fit such girls as are suited to hold office positions that will pay them a living wage. Every girl who displays an aptitude for any other work "is given instruction along the lines for which she seems to be adapted to the fullest extent of the facilities of the school." Of the girls who have graduated from the eighth grade and commercial class, 2 are in training for nurses, 8 are doing office work and typing and 2 are clerking. Among the girls paroled to their homes, 32 are doing factory work and 19 clerical work.—*Institution Quarterly* (Illinois), XI-1, March 31, 1920. pp. 120-123. (E. K. B.)

**The Parole Law and its Administration.** The Division of Pardons and Parole is under the complete control and supervision of the Director of the Department of Public Welfare. Associated with the Superintendent of Pardons and Paroles in advisory capacity are the Assistant Director of Public Welfare and the Superintendent of Prisons. There are two lines of work before the division—commutation or pardon and parole. In the matter of pardons "the Superintendent of Pardons and Parole, the Assistant Director, the Superintendent of Prisons and the State Criminologist constitute the body which hears all applications for commutation or pardon and makes recommendations to the Governor." Meetings are held quarterly. "But it is in the matter of parole that the greatest interest is manifested." Monthly meetings are held and nearly a week spent in each institution each month. All terms are indeterminate except those for treason, murder, rape and kidnapping. A first term automatically appears before the board at the end of his eleventh month. He is allowed to make a statement, his friends and family, with lawyers, may appear and his physical and mental status, as well as his prison conduct, are considered. In the event of favorable decision a sponsor, whose influence investigation has shown to be good, is selected to be in a measure responsible for the parolee. The state is divided into twelve districts, each presided over by a parole agent who visits his parolee at least monthly and knows his whereabouts constantly. Aftercare is thus a reality. In November, 1919, in District No. 1, there were on parole 219 men.—*J. E. McClure*. *Institution Quarterly* (Illinois), XI-1, Mar. 31, 1920. pp. 12-21. (E. K. B.)



**Mental disorders in adolescence.** During this period of transition the habits and tastes of a child are being replaced by those of the adult. These forces may find outlets in various unwholesome forms of activity which often get the boy into serious difficulty. The troubles are oftentimes extremely aggravated by a misunderstanding of the parents to the boy's adjustment. An illustrative case of young Jewish boy is mentioned. The father of the boy was extremely harsh in his treatment, while the mother was entirely too lenient. The boy craves pleasure and emotional outlet. He finally steals from his own father to get even for the harsh treatment he has received, then becomes overcome with remorse and remains away from home for several days. This only aggravates his trouble in his home life. He continues stealing, playing truant, then staying out all night from fear because of his misdeeds. In the end he is sent to several hospitals for the insane for observation. After an open discussion of the boy's difficulties and four months' treatment at the hospital, he was returned to his home. If the boy had been differently handled at first it is doubtful if the psychosis would ever have occurred. This case represents a concrete example of the mental disturbances so frequently seen in adolescence which are due to the difficulty the individual encounters in adjusting himself to the new emotional forces which become active at this time.—*Milton A. Harrington. Mental Hygiene, IV—2, April, 1950. pp. 364-379. (M. S. C.)*

# The Journal of Delinquency

Volume V

NOVEMBER, 1920

Number 6

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## THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS AND THE TREATMENT OF DELINQUENT CHILDREN

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In this paper the relation of the public schools to the treatment of children whose behavior is irregular is discussed from my personal point of view as a juvenile court official, and the opinions I have to state relate to the nature and regulation of child conduct only in so far as I have been able to see the facts personally in court practice. My remarks will aim to re-emphasize the present day view of sociologists that there is such a condition as incipient criminalism and that the way of approach to its effectual treatment does not necessarily lead to the juvenile court.

I shall not wish to imply that our present judicial system for the treatment of juvenile delinquency should be transferred to the educational boards, though I frankly favor withholding from court proceedings as many children as may be adequately aided and protected by a well conceived and systematically co-ordinated effort to control their moral development through the instrumentality of the public school system.

### I

The most advanced conception of the law with relation to offending children we believe is this: That the child is delinquent not because of the commission of a single act which may lead to his arrest, but that he is delinquent when the sum of his behavior indicates an inclination to irregularity out of proportion to his healthful impulses.

Delinquency seldom, if ever, develops spontaneously and with sudden onset. An extensive acquaintance with the personal histories of delinquent children in any community will reveal with almost constant uniformity clearly defined prodromal symptoms which are unmistakably indicative of the oncoming misbehavior which culminates in court proceedings.

Usually the custodian of a child who becomes involved in serious misbehavior is able to cite an important group of antecedent facts which take on a new and serious meaning in the presence of an arrest. Many adults, to be sure, have only a meager acquaintance with the seemingly unimportant interests of their child's life and are unaware of any social abnormality until an act is committed which violates the rights of an individual who makes his protest to the authorities. But the subtle beginning of the irregular behavior may always be traced back beyond the event which declares that something is wrong. The study of causation has revealed the importance of these observations by indicating that juvenile delinquency is a state or attitude of mind which develops gradually and presents a series of early symptoms that are observable and which may point the way more often than we are aware to corrective treatment. This fact furnishes the strongest encouragement to the student of delinquency in suggesting the possibility of aborting delinquent careers.

Juvenile court administrators who maintain a scientific attitude toward their wards usually become clearly aware of the importance of such beginnings of waywardness. And the early indications of pathological changes in the social interest of an individual are so detectable that they may be expressed in clinical terms. No case of criminalism ever comes to maturity without running its course through a considerable period in which the symptomatology is as susceptible of analysis as are the initial stages of physical and mental diseases. We may discuss social behavior intelligently only by first recognizing social disease as a clinical entity.

A requisite then for securing results in the treatment of delinquents is to detect the social deviation and its cause early. This would appear to be easy enough, and the current popular idea is that such incipient misconduct should be speedily referred to the juvenile court. But as a matter of fact this popular misconception is producing one of the seriously important faults in court administration, and a fault that is least easily corrected.

From the beginning of the separate tribunal for children altogether too many misbehaving youngsters have been accepted for judicial consideration. It is not unfair, I think, to assert that a considerable number of the youth who in most of our communities form a ne'er-do-well group of "court children" have been so inured by court appearances that their continuing misbehavior may in part be attributed to their familiarity with court methods. This result is inevitable so



long as the community accepts the juvenile court as the one agency that is competent to consider problems of child conduct. The obligation which incipient delinquents place upon the court very naturally causes the probationary function to be used in their behalf, and the behavior of the children being so akin to the community average, the probation officer's supervision is apt to be of a desultory sort and in the end detrimental by encouraging the child to form a wrong conception of the seriousness of the court's function. Or, on the other hand, if the court agent follows after his ward with the persistent aggressiveness that should characterize his supervision, the child's parents may be expected to resent the oversight, if they do not openly declare that the court is becoming needlessly meddlesome. These observations, I am aware, would lead straight away into a discussion of methods of supervision, which it is not my object to provoke by this paper. However, an application of the reference may safely be made to any one of our courts and not many of my colleagues whose experience has extended through a number of years will fail to understand the accuracy of my remarks. What we need to remember with increasing care is some such adage as: Saving one child out of court is better social service than rearing two through this judicial agency.

The modern spirit happily reveals a wide acceptance of this view. And the more progressive the court, the greater reluctance is shown in giving children a court record. Therefore the modern court will not seek an early contact with delinquent children notwithstanding the fact that the experienced court official knows that effectual treatment demands, if possible, the use of corrective measures at the earliest possible moment.

What needs to be done, and is being done with increasing care in several communities, is to recognize the indications of incipient delinquency and apply corrective treatment in the form of social or personal readjustments at the earliest possible moment through the instrumentality of the schools.

When the family functions normally these early indications of waywardness are observed by parents and the greater part of the community child population is thus safeguarded by the alertness of custodians. In this acuteness of observation is expressed one of the most notable traits of efficient guardianship. And there is justification for a hopeful attitude in the fact that with all the social pressure children have to resist, only about one in a hundred slip beyond

family control and engage the serious attention of community agencies. Our responsibility relates to the care of the one per cent, and all of them are to such a degree with home control that their course of development will depend upon what we do for them.

At the outset of my professional interest in the court care of delinquents I found that the public school teachers and principals were the only substantial source of support for immediate assistance in getting an accurate view of the child whose home control had failed. In this regard I have no doubt I shared the experience of all court officers who have been more concerned with the personal traits of their wards than with the property or other interests that were violated by their misconduct. For next to the home in intimacy of relation to the child is the school.

In recalling this early observation, which has been increasingly significant through subsequent years, I remember another impression of those days when we were doing our first practicing at juvenile court field work. A zealous expression of opinion, which doubtless did more credit to my interest than to my knowledge, provoked a discussion with teachers now and then about the extent to which school agents were obligated by their professional interests to give attention to a child's career while he was away from the school premises. There was then, as at present, no sanction in law for such out-of-school relationship. But being young, with the memory of my own boyhood waywardness unsuppressed, I knew how close a relation there was between my out-of-school behavior and the obstreperousness and poor scholarship that now and then called forth the criticism of my teachers. In those conversations, and in a similar exchange of views with school people since, I have not encountered a doubt about the legitimacy of the school acquainting itself with the facts of a child's life, nor the favorable opportunity the school relationship offers for ready access to the facts. The obviousness of a decreasing mental alertness, a slump in scholarship, irregular attendance and insubordination opens the way very promptly for an inquiry concerning the cause, and an efficient teacher is not troubled by doubts about the appropriateness of locating the detrimental influence.

A difference of opinion does exist, however, concerning the amount of effort the school should expend in the investigation and treatment of pernicious factors, for the entire child, his aggregate behavior



and environment, are encountered forthwith in their inseparable relationships.

The increasing effort which the schools are slowly but surely making to meet the obligation to free every child from his handicaps that are remediable and obtain for him a maximum development has steadily strengthened my early conviction that the court should be encouraged to function in a personal relation with the child only when relief is not otherwise obtainable.

I cited the protest of teachers against adding much disciplinary responsibility to their already well-filled program. Conduct matters usually, I think, are passed up to principals, and from them also may come a just objection to any considerable increase of responsibility for the consideration of delinquent acts committed away from the school. I do not take issue with either objection. Neither teacher nor principal may fairly be expected to serve as a master of discipline to investigate a child's community acts, except in so far as the child's outside behavior is detrimental to his personal progress and his relationships to the school. And even in the care of such conduct situations which are known to have an important connection with the child's school activities, it is expedient to have the police or some other agent do any field work that may be required. Furthermore, I would equally eliminate any such responsibility from the superintendent's office and from the duties of so-called school attendance officers.

And now having so completely relieved the entire instruction and compulsory attendance staff of responsibility, I may indulge in a hope that my friends of the teaching fraternity shall not accuse me of doing them an injustice by advocating a theory which they might consider fallacious if it expanded their function and responsibility.

My opinion of what the school should do for delinquent children is based upon the clinical conception. The teaching staff, as well as the school administrators and attendance officers, will ultimately give less, rather than more, attention to the specific deed which our laws and social standards taboo. The school should have a thorough, live interest in a child's actions only in the abstract sense that his actions are symptoms of wrong developmental tendencies. The failure that characterizes much of the effort of all agencies, including families, schools and courts, to correct the social faults of childhood is in the fallacious nearsighted tendency to see only the act that violated our moral code. A school attendance officer ought to know that he hasn't captured the truant when he grips him by the collar



and leads him back to school. Nor is dishonesty as a clinical trait corrected by forcing the return of stolen goods. Locating the runaway and securing restitution both are primarily requisite to future good conduct, to be sure, but, alone, they do not amount to very much in changing the child's disposition.

## II

The application of these generally accepted views in some sort of a workable plan seems to me entirely possible. In fact, I suppose my conception of what may be done in the matter has already been worked out in practice by the detached efforts of individual teachers, attendance officers and medical inspectors in various parts of the country. Concerted efforts amounting to administrative innovations have also been made in several cities and are securing notable results. Attendance departments are reshaping their standards of responsibility toward truants. Medical inspectors and nurses are increasingly interested in attendance and deportment problems, and now and then an enthusiastic worker lays claim to jurisdiction over them as medical problems. The story of what is being done might very profitably be told and the practicability of this statement would promptly be established by the record of results already secured. But no city has undertaken the application of these principles by a systematic, centralized effort, and I, therefore, can make a more useful analysis of what I conceive to be a workable plan by outlining an hypothetical scheme. For this purpose I shall have in mind a school district with an enrollment of twenty-five thousand or more.

We may assume that such a jurisdiction will have in operation an attendance department consisting of one or more field agents called truant officers. At the outset I would have such an attendance department with its reliance on ways and means which have been grafted from police methods promptly terminated. In its place I would establish a department of adjustment, to be organized as a clinical agency. The new department should be headed by one whose technical training and experience qualifies him as an expert in the analysis of behavior. He should have a substantial understanding of psychology, the physical development of children and the intimate relationships of their social life. A sufficient number of both men and women assistants should be provided for field investigations to keep the department in prompt and thorough contact with the needs of the district. Service to be efficient must be so immediately avail-

able and so aggressively maintained in every case that principals would experience no delay in securing action in behalf of any child whose conduct sets him apart from the normally behaving population of the school.

To the department should be referred all children whose behavior or whose social tendencies make them misfits in the group organization and defy the methods of correction that are within the province of the principal. This statement gives no separate recognition to delinquents as such, at least so far as terms of classification are concerned. It should be a fundamental intention to avoid, if possible, any attitude which might encourage the child to flatter himself with the distinction of being a culprit. The children of the department should be thought of only as misfits, and the solution of their difficulties should be undertaken by a painstaking analysis of their social, physical and mental condition.

Conduct is so variously influenced by mental and physical faults that the department should have a very close relation with the medical and psychological clinics that already are operating with great usefulness in most metropolitan school organizations. If such departments are not already available, provision would need to be made for medical and dental examinations and treatment, and for psychological clinical assistance. Without these aids, no real progress can be made in realizing the ideal of this scheme.

But such emphasis may leave an impression that the department would limit its efforts to laboratory methods. This is not the opinion I wish to convey, though I have abundant faith in the ability of medical and psychological science to unkink many of the troublesome social twists of childhood. The laboratory method is fundamental to the plan I propose, but it should be used only to the extent that it serves a practical purpose. After all, I think we may at times lose sight of the fact that a skillful person may do a perfectly good physical or mental examination and make use of creditable technique, and do it all in such a sympathetic, agreeable manner that the child will find the the experience very much more agreeable and confidence inspiring than he will the ordinary social interview. There really is no danger at all of losing the so-called "human touch" by being systematic.

Having asserted at the outset that the opinions I hold are a product of my experience in attempting to regulate child behavior through the juvenile court, I may reasonably hope that my views are



not without some practical value. Their application by the procedure suggested will work out problems of delinquency with more success than we are able to do in the juvenile court, but the school organization may not hope to provide complete adjustment for all cases.

There will always be children present for consideration who are involved in family and other environmental situations which make it necessary to secure a change of custody. Such treatment by adjudication, obviously, may only be provided by the courts. In these cases the school agent would represent the child in any proceeding which might be carried over from the department into the court.

In conclusion, the application of this plan for the treatment of delinquent children by the schools should in no way interfere with the established rights of the police or the juvenile court. I make no pretense, however, of concealing an assurance that the beneficial effect of such a plan, well administered, will so decrease the troubles of those agencies, that both may in time be forced to notice that boys seem not to be so bad as in the old days.



## INTELLIGENCE AND INDUSTRIAL TESTS IN INSTITUTIONAL ADMINISTRATION<sup>1</sup>

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The need for psychological study of institutional populations is so obvious that one is astonished that such work has been so long delayed. It is now generally agreed that knowledge of the mental abilities of institutional inmates must be had in order to serve their best interests. It is not merely *desirable* that psychological tests be employed in state institutions, it is absolutely imperative. These institutions cannot hope to live up to their best possibilities unless a sorting of inmates upon a psychological basis is effectively in operation.

Let us concede the desirability of employing mental tests for the classification of inmates of institutions. This fact is now being recognized by business organizations, which have gone beyond the analysis of their physical materials and are now carefully considering the analysis of their operatives. Many institutions have long conceded the desirability of employing mental tests, but have been prohibited from developing this work to its fullest scope because of the expense involved, the great amount of time required and the supposed impracticability of utilizing the results. All of these difficulties have been real. They have been overcome, however, in a large measure by the development of new procedures as the result of psychological service in the Army. By means of the group tests of intelligence, which were developed for Army purposes, it is now possible to survey an entire institution with respect to its intellectual composition in one day of examining. These group tests are so simple that they can be given by nearly any intelligent person after a certain amount of training. They are so efficient that they can be scored by clerks after a half-day's initiation. The interpretation of results, of course, calls for special psychological training.

As the result of applying such tests, one finds very quickly the general composition of an institutional population from the standpoint

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1. Read at the joint meeting of the American Association of Public Officials and the National Conference on the Education of Truant, Backward and Delinquent Children, Chicago, June 22, 1920.

of general intelligence. The Army group test will furnish an intelligence rating of each inmate with a very high degree of accuracy. It will make possible a classification of institutional inmates on the basis of their most important single characteristic. It will by no means give all of the desirable information regarding each inmate but it will give the most important single item.

It is now generally conceded that a man's mental age is the most important single consideration in his institutional classification. Formerly, it required at least one hour of time by an expertly trained examiner before this mental age could be determined. The expense and time incident to this type of examination made psychological tests impractical for daily use. This furnished some excuse for not making wider use of such tests. That defect has now been overcome. The expense now involved is a negligible consideration in view of the fundamental importance of the results obtained. We still need tests for illiterate adults but the prospects of soon having them are good.

As the result of applying the Army group test to the correctional institutions of New Jersey we have been able in a year's time to comprehend the special administrative problems involved in each of five institutions so far as their problems relate to the mental capacities of the inmates. At the New Jersey State Prison, for example, the entire population available for examination, 800 men, was examined in one day. Within a week a statistical report of results was presented. This indicated that the typical New Jersey state prisoner is not a mental defective. On the contrary he is only slightly inferior in general intelligence to the adult males of the state at large<sup>2</sup>. A similar survey of the state institutions for juvenile delinquent boys on the other hand, indicated that certainly one-quarter of that institution's population could safely be considered as feeble-minded, while an additional one-half were of decidedly inferior average intelligence. Only a very small percentage of the state's juvenile delinquent boys proved to be above the average in general intelligence. These very significant facts were established as the result of hardly more than a month's full work by one examiner with limited clerical assistance. The contrast of institutional problems presented by the State Prison on the one hand and the State Home for Boys on the other, is sufficiently great to indicate the vital importance of psychological surveys of institutional populations. An institution for juve-

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2. Cf. "*The Comparative Intelligence of Prisoners*" by Edgar A. Doll, *Jour. Crim. Law and Criminology*, July, 1920.



nile delinquents, which contains 25 per cent of mental defectives, cannot hope to realize the aims and ideals for which it was founded; it cannot hope to provide effective school training or vocational education for inmates who are so distinctly subnormal in mental abilities. When the facts can be discovered so easily and so quickly, there is little excuse left for neglecting to discover these mentally defective inmates and provide the best possible facilities for their treatment and welfare. It is not sufficient to segregate or classify these mentally defective delinquents within the institution for delinquents. These feeble-minded can be made self-supporting but not self-controlling.

Nearly every institution has an academic school. Very few institutions pay much attention to the mental ability of the inmates who are sent to these schools for instruction. Without a knowledge of the mental powers of the individuals sent to school, it is not possible to predict what degree of success can be obtained from the educational opportunities offered. It also is not possible to know what progress pupils *can* make, *should* make or *will* make. Yet by means of simple mental tests it is now possible to predict, with a very high degree of accuracy, the amount of profit which may be gained by an individual pupil from attendance at an academic institutional school, and to indicate the kind and amount of instruction needed. The trained psychologist is able to discriminate between illiteracy due to lack of opportunity and illiteracy due to lack of intelligence. He is able to recommend to the school director those persons who will profit best from attendance at school and to recommend the elimination of those for whom further schooling is hopeless. Many institutional schools waste about 50 per cent of their energies upon pupils who cannot possibly profit, to any material degree, from the instruction which is offered them.

By means of well applied mental tests, the psychologist is further able to distinguish between those mental types who can profit from academic school instruction and those who can profit from manual or vocational education. For this purpose the trained psychologist distinguishes between the verbal and manual types. The verbal type is able to understand abstract ideas conveyed by language; he is able to learn general principles in the absence of concrete materials; he is able to plan on an abstract basis. The manual type, however, is essentially concrete in all his thinking and actions. He plans step by step with comparatively little foresight; he cannot deal with verbal instructions, although he may be very successful in act-



ual doing. Too frequently the verbalist type does not become sufficiently well developed in actual productive capacities and too frequently the manual type is held down to a daily routine of monotonous labor. If these types are recognized and properly instructed, the verbal type can be rendered more effective socially in his constructive abilities and the manual type can be raised to a higher social and vocational level by means of educative handwork.

On a psychological basis it is possible, therefore, to distinguish between those institutional inmates who can profit from academic school instruction, those who can profit from vocational education and those who can profit only from industrial training. A distinction must be made between vocational education and industrial training. The purpose of vocational education is to develop an individual by means of concrete instruction. This applies particularly to the manual type, who gets very little from book instruction or from teaching based on abstract principles. Industrial training, however, provides only specific knowledge or skill in special trade processes. A man so trained is limited to the definite things which he has been taught or has acquired; he has but little versatility, he does not understand his trade as a whole, he has not been socially developed. He is consequently limited to productive capacity of a special sort. Vocational education, however, develops an individual to a well-rounded conception of his place in society and in industry; it provides the means of general education and it gives elementary knowledge of a variety of trade processes. It is not the purpose of vocational education to impart any high degree of specific industrial skill; its fundamental purpose, on the contrary, is to impart trade information, to give knowledge of the relations of one trade process to another, of one industry to another and of the relation of industry to society at large.

Is it possible for the psychologist to contribute anything to the vocational and industrial policies of an institution? The answer is unquestionably, yes. The psychologist can distinguish between those who will profit from education in industry and those who can acquire only trade skill. He also can determine the mental limitations of individuals in regard to vocational or industrial development; he can determine, in some degree, the special vocational aptitudes which are inherent in institutional inmates; he can determine the type of instruction best suited to these inmates; he can estimate the temperamental qualities which may lead to success or which are liable to induce failure. He also is able, with a fair degree of success, to

measure the various degrees of trade skill and thereby to determine the daily progress of individuals as the result of instruction or training.

An institution cannot hope to develop its educational and industrial policies and facilities without a thorough understanding of the various psychological factors involved in the composition of the population. When an institution has a large percentage of feeble-mindedness, it is futile to attempt to install systems of education or training which demand normal intelligence. When an institution has a very heavy percentage of inmates who are intellectually inferior or emotionally unstable, that institution cannot be expected to accomplish the same results as another institution which has a high percentage of average or superior intelligence or a group of inmates who are temperamentally stable. If it is a question of installing a new industry in an institution or of extending the school facilities or of modifying the type of instruction, such changes cannot intelligently be made without consideration of the number and type of inmates whom these changes will serve. The psychologist, therefore, is a very important member of the consulting staff of any institutional superintendent or board of managers.

As an example of the particular service which can be rendered by the psychologist in the state institutions, let me cite the results of an industrial survey made in the New Jersey State Prison<sup>3</sup>. The psychologist was called upon to make recommendations regarding the educational, industrial and vocational possibilities of each man, to estimate his trustworthiness from the standpoint of mental make-up and to recommend him for suitable occupational assignment. In order to accomplish this, it was necessary to make an analysis of all the occupations within the institution. The first step was to list the shops and their particular requirements. As the result of preliminary analysis, the psychologist was able to grade the occupational shops on a scale of 5, as very inferior, inferior, average, superior and very superior. The grading of each shop as a whole was based upon the number and type of men employed within the shop. Necessarily, there was a good deal of overlapping; some high grade men were necessarily in shops classified as inferior and some low grade men were necessarily in shops classified as superior. The prison road work, for example, as a general occupation was classed as inferior from

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3. Cf. *Annual Report for the Year 1919-1920*, New Jersey State Prison, Trenton, N. J.



the standpoint of the qualifications needed by the men so employed. This was because the vast majority of the men in the road camps were assigned to unskilled physical labor. Only a small percentage of highly skilled industrial occupations were afforded. The state prison print shop, on the other hand, was rated as very superior. This is because the work of the shop calls for a relatively high degree of education, intelligence, responsibility, skill and individual initiative on the part of the majority of men employed. In this shop only a small number of unskilled men could be used.

Following this classification of the shops as units, each shop was analyzed with respect to the detailed work processes and operations within the shop. These specific processes were also graded on the scale of 5 as calling for grades of industrial competence which could be rated as very inferior, inferior, average, superior and very superior. The analysis was made upon the basis of the men now successfully employed in these operations within each shop. The number of men employed in each work unit and the general intelligence, education, responsibility and industrial skill required were considered in determining the rating of the work. These work processes have all been grouped for the prison as a whole. The psychologist consequently knows how many men are employed in each process of each industry and the qualifications which are necessary for a man successfully to fill these positions. The psychologist examines each man on his admission to the prison and determines by special tests his qualifications in these several particulars. Knowing the requirements of the jobs and the qualifications of the men available for work or vocational development, he is in a position, intelligently and scientifically, to recommend specific assignments to particular jobs or to make general recommendations for a group of jobs in which a man is competent to succeed. These recommendations serve two purposes. On the one hand they indicate the work unit for which a man already has a definite degree of industrial skill as measured by his industrial history and trade ability. On the other hand, they indicate a range of occupations for which a man may be vocationally developed, but in which he has at the time no definite degree of trade skill.

The third step in the industrial analysis of occupations at the state prison will be to determine the sub-processes within each work unit of each shop. A man who qualifies for a particular trade must be competent in all of the elements of that trade. It is therefore necessary to analyze all the operations within a shop from a standpoint



of the elements which constitute the total work of that shop. This work has not yet been attempted at the New Jersey State Prison, but it soon will be attempted. When it is completed, it should provide a basis for reorganization of the shops from the standpoint of their vocational possibilities. This analysis will provide the basis for improving the courses of instruction offered for developing well-rounded tradesmen.

The principal need of industrial training of the present day is to get away from industrial specialization of the mechanical sort. We are in grave danger at the present time of industrial disorganization, due to the fact that there are too many trade specialists and too few journeymen tradesmen. It is imperative that men have sufficient training in a trade to provide for shifts in occupational units due to changing conditions within a shop or within an industry. The days of the apprentice system as we have known it are nearly gone and probably will not return. As trade specialists or machine specialists young men can earn such high wages that they refuse to go through the slow steps now demanded of trade apprentices. This defect of our present industrial system can be overcome, however, by making the apprentice system more effective. This can be accomplished by making analytical classifications of all the processes and sub-processes within a trade unit. On this basis the organization of any shop can be made so effective that a man can progress through the various steps of any industry and acquire trade skill and at the same time be sufficiently productive at each stage to earn good wages.

The means for improving industrial instruction in a shop without interfering with the routine production of the shop are well described by Mr. John S. Leech, formerly Director of Printing in the Philippines. He says:

"To be effective, vocational training must be of a practical nature which will properly fit the student-apprentice as a journeyman. The method of instruction must be based on an analytical study of the trade and all of its branches, each working operation, as a result of the analysis, to be segregated into units and subunits, which, in turn, must be systematically arranged into progressive classes so that the mind of the student-apprentice can readily grasp their mutual relevancy.

"The efficacy and practicability of the following system have been thoroughly established (in the Bureau of Printing) and conclusively show the advantages of system over chaos in industrial instruction.

"The component parts of all the correlative branches of a trade are

analyzed, and the working operations, whether performed by machine or hand, of each division of the trade are segregated into *units* and *subunits*. The *units* and *subunits*, in the order of their relative importance, are grouped into classes, forming a systematic and coordinate sequence of instruction. A progressive schedule is thus provided—a step-by-step advancement which is as necessary to proper industrial education as are the finger exercises in the acquirement of the finished technique of the expert musician.

“The system is effective because it standardizes *technical* training by the adoption of a concise but comprehensive method of instruction, imparted in the orderly progression of an invariable schedule.

“This system of training is commercially practicable in that it may be introduced into a manufacturing plant of any kind without perceptible change in its regular routine.

“This systematization will make a craftsman competent in any of the skilled trades.”

With respect to the vocational education of juveniles in state institutions we have a very much more difficult problem. It is extremely difficult to determine the vocational aptitudes of children under the age of 14 years. It is a question as to whether these aptitudes should be industrially developed so early in life. Before the age of 15, very few children have obtained that degree of maturity or development which is necessary to indicate their future social and vocational possibilities. These children are still growing; their interests, habits and abilities are potential rather than fixed. It is, therefore, necessary to provide for such inmates, general education of the sort which will prove most effective for them later in life. Consequently, the emphasis in vocational development must be on the educative side. Definite vocational work should be provided only as a means of general education and of trade training. Vocational education is absolutely necessary for the proper social development of the manual type of child. This child profits so little from ordinary book instruction or formal teaching based on abstract principles that he fails to learn unless other educational devices are provided for him. Vocational instruction provides both the means and the incentive for such children to extend their educative period. Such children ordinarily fail to profit from instruction in school, but can be materially improved in a vocational school. This vocational work must provide certain fundamentals of educative instruction, but it must be provided on a concrete basis in relation to the work of



every-day life and not upon abstract teaching based only on general principles. Vocational education in the public schools of today is very much to be commended so long as it remains educational, that is to say, so long as it develops the individual for a higher place in the social order than he otherwise would occupy. Vocational training, however, will prove to be a positive evil if it neglects its educative possibilities and emphasizes too much or too early the preliminary aspects of trade training only.

We may conclude then as follows:

1. It is now possible to apply psychological tests to institutional populations with a minimum of expense and time and with a high degree of accuracy and practical profit. .

2. The results of such tests are absolutely fundamental to the intelligent management of an institution, since otherwise one must rely upon trial and error methods, rather than upon scientific prediction and classification.

3. The results of such tests lead to the formulation of institutional policies regarding the disciplinary disposition or educational development of institutional inmates and indicate the most profitable lines of education and training which can be followed.

4. It is possible to analyze school courses of study, educational methods and occupational shops with a view to improving the efficiency of the means and methods provided for the welfare and development of institutional inmates.

5. It is possible, as the result of detailed industrial analysis, to extend and improve the industrial and vocational training now afforded by institutional shops.

6. It is possible to distinguish between verbal and manual types of children and adults and on this basis to discriminate between the kinds and degrees of educational or industrial development that are possible in each case.



## EXCITABILITY IN DELINQUENT BOYS

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Individual differences in temperament, particularly with reference to its expression in mood, are readily recognized through ordinary observations. Many individuals retain a certain average of normal temperament, while others show an increased activity and highly elated emotional state; in others the condition will vary from the excited to the depressed. Dr. Davenport (2) found when both parents are liable to excited spells without corresponding depressed spells, children of the same sort are to be expected. When one parent is of a choleric temperament and the other of a nervous temperament, the children will be either choleric or nervous. When neither parent is excitable, none of the children are excitable. Dr. Adler (1), in his discussion of excitability, says that the intelligence of these individuals is, as a rule, above the average. The most prominent characteristic is naturally a strong emotional instability. Dr. Healy (5), in studies of juvenile offenders, found a greater percentage of excitability among the boys than among the girls. He finds 22 per cent of the boys excitable, while the data for this study show 37 per cent excitable.

### DEFINITION

For the purpose of this study, excitability is considered an emotional state characterized by a loss or weakening of inhibitory control, to such an extent that some form of irregular conduct results. The classification by Southard (6) includes the following behavioristic elements: destructiveness, homicidal tendencies, irritability, psycho-motor excitement, and violence. We shall include also violent temper, the hysterical state, and the marked lachrymose state.

*Destructiveness* refers to the wilful destruction of property. In juvenile delinquency the destruction is usually on a small scale, and seldom involves large values. Exceptional instances, however, include serious damage.

*Homicidal tendencies* include serious personal assaults, usually with intent to do great bodily harm. It includes habitual fighting and killing.

*Irritability* refers to a marked tendency (habitual and characteristic, not of an incidental sort) to be peevish, irascible, easily annoyed, always ready to take offense, being "touchy" and inability to accept ordinary reprimand.

*Psycho-motor excitement* refers to extreme unco-ordinated motion and marked nervousness. It is characterized by a weakness of muscular control, and may take on the form of tics or habit spasms. It includes shaking, twitching, etc.

*Violence* includes behavior in which the individual becomes dangerous in any way, not otherwise classified.

*Violent temper* refers to absolute release of feelings of anger and temporary loss of all restraint or inhibitory power.

*Hysterical* refers to the loss of control of the emotions without sufficient cause. It is characterized by fits of laughing, crying, etc.

*Lachrymose* refers to the uncontrolled shedding of tears, particularly without cause.

Strict adherence to this classification has been followed and no boy in this study is considered excitable unless he appears in one or more of the foregoing groups. When the relatives of the boys are recorded for excitability and non-excitability, there cannot be as sharply a defined line between the two due to the necessity for relying upon less extensive information. The personal judgment of the writer will have to be accepted for the final classification.

Dr. Davenport (2) says that we recognize a certain average of normal temperament, and that, in many persons, the mood is often associated with an increased activity and lowered emotional tone; while still others pass through alternating cycles of hyperactivity and depression. He discusses particularly the hyperkinetic state of which the lesser grade is called nervous (sometimes sanguine), the more developed grade choleric. The nervous person is active, energetic, irritable, excitable, ambitious, given to planning, optimistic, usually talkative and jolly. The choleric person is over-active, starts on new lines of work before completing the old, brags, is usually hilarious, hypererotic, often profane, liable to violent fits of anger, brutal, destructive, assaultive, and even homicidal. Excitability, within the meaning used in this study, refers to emotional states indicating the Davenport description of hyperkinesis. The state occurs in varying degrees, but particular interest is attached to the more marked degrees, especially those related to unsocial conduct.

#### METHOD

An unselected list of one hundred of the most recent



cases of boys for whom we have prepared family histories was chosen. In reading and studying the histories of these boys, there was quite an opportunity to note under which item in our histories the several forms of excitability were to be found. It might here be stated that the histories are prepared according to an outline of thirteen items under which a detailed description of the boy's personal relationship to each item is considered. The items are: intelligence; temperament; other mental conditions; physical condition; moral character; conduct; associates; amusements; education; vocational record; home conditions; and neighborhood conditions. One would expect to find most of the information on excitability under temperament, but this was not found to be entirely true, although the largest proportion came under that heading. There were cases in which, to justify inclusion in the list, it was necessary to analyze *conduct*, *amusements* and *physical condition*.

In no case was a boy classified as excitable when the tendency was pathological or bordering on insanity. The difference, however, is more in degree than in type. "The most significant symptoms," according to Dr. Terman (7), "are emotional and volitional." The nervous child is apt to be unstable in its emotional life, easily turned from laughter to tears, quick to anger, irritable, peevish, etc. There is a constant hunger for excitement and distraction is sought in a variety of stimulation.

#### DISTRIBUTION OF CASES

It was found that 37 per cent of this unselected group were definitely excitable with varying forms as found in our definition. The order of frequency in which the different forms occurred can be seen in Fig. 1. The excitability in any case might, of course, take one or more of the forms. In one case three forms were shown, in six cases two forms, while in thirty cases but one form was evidenced. It can be readily seen that irritability was most frequent, it being found in 16 per cent of the cases, while violent temper and destructiveness were the least frequent. The hysterical form was never found in the propositus nor in any of the male sex, although it was occasionally found among the female relatives. Psycho-motor excitement appears in 7 per cent of the cases; homicidal tendencies in 6 per cent; exaltation in 5 per cent; violence in 4 per cent; lachrymose in 3 per cent; destructiveness and violent temper each in 2 per cent. The one instance in which three forms were



found showed exaltation, the lachrymose state and psycho-motor excitement. A brief description of this case and one with two forms and the one form alone, will best illustrate the findings:

Case 1. (3 forms) Was always a nervous boy, over-active, noticeable in his speech and manner. Drums on the table with his fingers. Is quick tempered and cries easily along with his excitability. As an outcome of his pronounced nervous energy, he is quick to respond. He was always hard to manage. Was impulsive, quarrelsome, subject to periods of disobedience and laziness, followed by periods of extremely good behavior. Attacks his work with a force which again suggests his nervous energy. Is highly imaginative. Because of this imagination, pride and suggestibility, he is given to much exaggeration and false boasting in regard to his delinquent acts. Stutters on occasions.

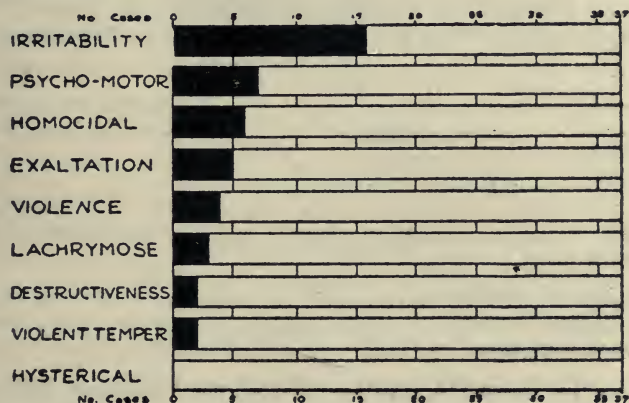


Fig. 1. Distribution of forms of excitability (shaded areas) as found among the 37 excitable boys.

Case 2. (2 forms) Is extremely stubborn and antagonistic. Excitable by spells; has fits of temper when he is almost beside himself. Is found to be fidgety and to lose interest quickly while in school. Has a good opinion of himself; thinks that he is very wise and is quite a bully. Undoubtedly likes to show off and make a big impression.

Case 3. (1 form) Is excitable, associated with nervousness. Very unstable emotionally. Breaks down with tears when his unfortunate experiences are rehearsed. Shows same tendency to cry when he gets nervous in trade detail. Has a nervous affliction which resem-

bles St. Vitus dance, but this nervous agitation may be merely a habit spasm.

The recent publication of excitability statistics in connection with public school surveys\* permits of some comparison. The Salt Lake survey found 10 per cent of the pupils in that city *noticeably nervous*, according to observations made by the teachers in the schools. The Boise survey found 167 out of 2456, or nearly 7 per cent, nervous or excitable. The Santa Ana and Bakersfield surveys found 21.5 and 7.2 per cent, respectively, of the pupils in those cities to be excitable. A survey of 470 delinquent boys in California institutions (9) reported that 42 per cent were *nervous*, according to the observations of the school physician. It would appear, therefore, that this tendency is much more common among delinquents than in the regular public school population.

TABLE I. NUMBER OF OFFENSES SHOWING EXCITABILITY IN  
DR. HEALY'S STUDY OF 1000 JUVENILE OFFENDERS.

	Boys	Girls
Fighting .....	42	0
Violence .....	40	16
Destructiveness .....	23	0
Violent temper .....	21	18
Cruelty .....	11	1
Setting fires .....	11	3
Homicidal tendencies .....	8	15
Total number excitable .....	156	53
Total number of cases .....	694	306
Per cent excitable .....	22	17

Dr. Healy (5) found a number of offenses among 1000 juvenile offenders which show the tendencies of excitability as found in our definition. In Table I is shown the offenses of the repeaters as charged in court and as obtained from the stories of the parents, and others. Among the 694 boys, 156, or 22 per cent, were excitable. In the cases of 306 girls, 53, or 17 per cent, were excitable. In this case there is a greater percentage of excitability among delinquent boys than among the girls.

#### OFFENSES

A distribution of the offenses with the frequency in which they occur among the excitable and non-excitable boys in this

\*The Salt Lake City and Boise surveys are published by the World Book Co., New York. The Santa Ana and Bakersfield surveys are published by Whittier State School, Department of Research.



study is shown in Fig. 2. It will be observed that stealing occurs oftener than any other offense, but is more frequent among the non-excitable boys, as, in fact, are all the offenses with the exception of arson and assault. Highway robbery did not occur in any of the one hundred cases in this study.

There was but one instance of arson and the boy was excitable, consequently it made the amount of excitability 100 per cent in that offense. While the proportion might have held with a larger number of cases, no significance can be attached to this single instance. Excitability occurred in 50 per cent of those committing sex offenses; 66 per cent in drunkenness, and 67 per cent in assault. Forty per cent of the number of those committing the offenses of burglary,

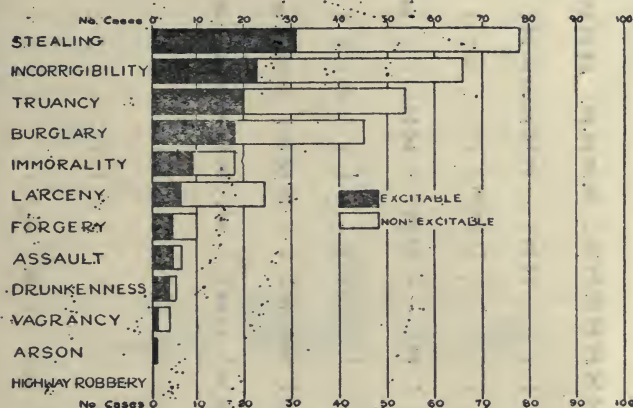


Fig. 2. Distribution of excitable and non-excitable cases in relation to offenses.

stealing and forgery were excitable; while truancy has 37 per cent, incorrigibility 35 per cent, and larceny and vagrancy 25 per cent. We can therefore assume from these figures that those committing offenses of vagrancy and larceny tend to be nearer the normal temperamental state than those committing offenses of immorality, drunkenness and assault.

Table II shows the distribution of offenses as they occur among the excitable group of boys. There are twelve definite kinds of offenses which may be committed by delinquent boys. The greatest number of offenses was 6, this applying to only one boy; while two had 5 offenses, nine had 4 offenses, eighteen had 3 offenses, five had 2 offenses and two had only one kind of offense. Those having but

TABLE II. DISTRIBUTION OF OFFENSES COMMITTED BY EACH BOY IN THE EXCITABLE GROUP.

No.	No. of offenses	Stealing	Burglary	Larceny	Immorality	Drunkenness	Incorrigibility	Truancy	Highway robbery	Vagrancy	Forgery	Assault	Arson
1	6	X	X	X	X		X	X					
2	5	X	X			X	X	X					
3	5	X	X		X		X	X					
4	4	X	X				X				X		
5	4	X	X				X	X					
6	4	X			X		X	X					
7	4	X	X				X	X					
8	4	X	X				X	X					
9	4		X			X	X	X					
10	4	X	X		X			X					
11	4	X	X		X		X						
12	4	X	X				X	X					
13	3	X		X			X						
14	3			X	X			X					
15	3	X	X		X								
16	3	X	X								X		
17	3	X					X	X					
18	3	X					X	X					
19	3	X			X		X						
20	3	X						X			X		
21	3	X					X	X					
22	3	X	X					X					
23	3	X				X	X						
24	3	X	X									X	
25	3	X					X	X					
26	3	X					X	X					
27	3	X	X				X						
28	3	X	X					X					
29	3	X					X					X	
30	3	X			X							X	
31	2			X				X					
32	2	X		X									
33	2			X			X						
34	2	X	X										
35	2	X								X			
36	2												X
37	1						X						
Totals		31	16	6	3	3	23	20	0	1	3	3	1



one kind of offense may have committed it any number of times, but his delinquent tendencies may never have taken any of the other eleven forms, while the boy having six offenses may have committed one or two of them only once, while the remainder may have been committed regularly by him whenever the opportunity presented itself.

### INTELLIGENCE

Fig. 3 shows the distribution of intelligence quotients among the one hundred boys. It will be noticed that excitability does not occur with certain intelligence quotients, but this might not be true for a greater number of cases. The median intelligence quotient for the excitable group is .87, and for the non-excitable group .86. Out of 22 feeble-minded boys five, or 23 per cent, are excitable, while in the superior group of seven boys four, or 57 per cent, are excitable.

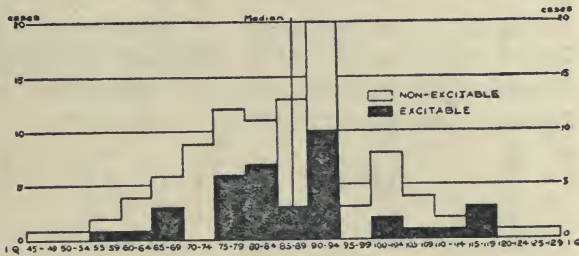


Fig. 3. Distribution of intelligence quotients among the total number of cases excitable and non-excitable.

Dr. Goddard (3) says, "the sanguine and the choleric feeble-minded persons are the ones who are most apt to get into trouble and be the most serious menace to society; while the phlegmatic and melancholic are much less dangerous. The problem has not, as yet, been studied in connection with the feeble-minded, although it is evident that these temperaments are all found among these people and have marked influence upon their social career and bearing; and in that connection are of great importance in the whole question of what is to be the solution of the feeble-minded problem."

Of special interest is Dr. Goddard's mention elsewhere (4) of temperament in connection with a discussion of the criminal. Whether the feeble-minded person actually becomes a criminal depends upon two factors; his temperament and his environment. If he is of a

quiet phlegmatic temperament with thoroughly weakened impulses, he may never be impelled to do anything seriously wrong. In this case when he cannot earn a living he will starve to death unless philanthropic people provide for him. On the other hand, if he is a nervous, excitable, impulsive person, he is almost sure to turn in the direction of criminality. Fortunately for the welfare of society the feeble-minded person as a rule lacks energy. But whatever his temperament, in a bad environment he may still become a criminal, the phlegmatic temperament becoming simply the dupe of more intelligent criminals, while the excitable, nervous, impulsive, feeble-minded person may escape criminality if his necessities are provided for, and his impulses and energies are turned in a wholesome direction.

#### RACIAL DIFFERENCES.

Classifying the boys according to race, we find that the Mexican is more prone to excitability than white or colored boys.

TABLE III. NUMBER AND PER CENT OF EXCITABLE AND NON-EXCITABLE DELINQUENT BOYS ACCORDING TO RACE

	Number Excitable	Per Cent Excitable	Number Not Excitable	Per Cent Not Excitable	Total Number of Boys
White	26	34.6	49	65.4	75
Colored	6	35.2	11	64.8	17
Mexican	5	62.5	3	37.5	8
Totals	37	37.0	63	63.0	100

However, the total number of cases for the colored and Mexican boys is too low to justify any sweeping conclusions regarding excitability in relation to race. From these percentages, it appears that the colored and Mexican delinquent boys are more apt to be excitable than the delinquent white boy. Dr. Williams (8) in reporting the survey of Santa Ana School children, found that the phlegmatic state was more common than the excitable state among the Mexican children, while the condition for white children was exactly the reverse.

#### HEREDITY

The frequency of excitability in the fraternity, parents and grandparents of the 37 excitable and the 63 non-excitable boys is shown in Table IV and V. In Table VI is shown the relationship of excitability to heredity. We find a far greater tendency toward excitability in the fraternity of the excitable group. The mothers of excitable boys tend to be excitable more often than the



TABLE IV. NUMBER OF FRATERNITY, PARENTS AND GRANDPARENTS EXCITABLE AMONG THE 37 EXCITABLE BOYS.

	Frater- nity	Father	Mother	Father's Father	Father's Mother	Mother's Father	Mother's Mother
Excitable	52	14	17	3	0	4	1
Not excitable	43	12	6	5	6	5	3
Doubtful	18	4	6	1	1	1	3
No data	20	7	8	28	30	27	30
Total	133	37	37	37	37	37	37

fathers, while in the non-excitable group, the fathers tends to be excitable more often than the mothers.

Dr. Davenport (2) cites numerous examples of the inheritance of temperament. He concludes that "if either parent is choleric, then all the children will be choleric or nervous. If either parent is steadily 'cheerful', then none of the children will be depressed. If both parents are steadily calm, then none of the offspring will be choleric or nervous. If both parents are melancholic, then none of the children will be cheerful." He has been able to study thoroughly

TABLE V. NUMBER OF FRATERNITY, PARENTS AND GRANDPARENTS EXCITABLE AMONG THE 63 NON-EXCITABLE BOYS.

	Frater- nity	Father	Mother	Father's Father	Father's Mother	Mother's Father	Mother's Mother
Excitable	9	15	11	3	3	2	4
Not excitable	193	30	36	4	4	13	7
Doubtful	20	10	5	3	5	2	1
No data	9	8	11	53	51	46	51
Total	261	63	63	63	63	63	63

the inheritance of temperament in individual case studies and his results are significant in their showing of the relationship of temperament to heredity.

TABLE VI. PER CENT OF EXCITABILITY AMONG THE FRATERNITY AND PARENTS.

	Fraternity	Father	Mother
Excitable group	39.0	37.9	45.8
Non-excitable group	3.4	23.8	17.4

The inheritance of excitability in our cases is shown in the accompanying family charts. These represent families in which the occurrence of the trait is especially noticeable. The figures represent pedigree charts of the families studied. Each chart is accompanied by a descriptive paragraph. In these charts the earlier generations are placed above, the younger ones below. Square symbols represent





less tendency would develop and he would prepare to run away. His mother was unable to care for him. III-6, exceedingly nervous. Has spasmodic twitching of eyelids, bites nails. Is also a bed-wetter. Given to much self-abuse. Had cone genital syphilis. Was beyond control of his mother. III-7, very nervous for some time and has been troubled with asthma. Is irritable and willful.

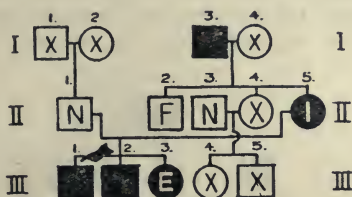


Fig. 5. Family of 180.

Fig. 5. I-1 died when his son was 18 years old. No further information. I-2, died when son was 4 years old. I-3, nervous. Died 3 years ago. I-4, died when II-5 was born. II-1, mild and not hot tempered. Rather a strict disciplinarian and has at times beat propositus, is inconsistent in his punishment and rather erratic. Becomes discouraged. II-2, always a little off. Has been in institution for some years. Not insane, but not right mentally. His deficiency is easily recognized. II-3, a plumber of jovial disposition. II-4, in good health as far as known. II-5, never very bright. Was nervous, also in habit of drinking nine or ten cups of coffee after each meal. Never drank liquor before her marriage, but afterwards drank "whenever she could get it." After death of her second child she had a nervous break-down. She drank steadily for three years prior to her death. During these three years she would do nothing, just sat in her chair day in and day out. Was sent to hospital for the insane six months prior to her death. Gradually failed mentally after a miscarriage. Was much depressed, disoriented and confused. III-1, his difficulties are almost entirely temperamental; evidences of flightiness, nervousness and unstable mood. While he is considered excitable he is not fidgety, showing the results of intellectual inhibition. He is subject to irrational conduct when his weakness of emotional control of which he seems to be aware is dominant. His excitable temperament is evidenced by his quick temper and headstrong disposition. Gets angry and is afraid of nothing, "goes the limit." Is reported to need lots of excitement. Has a nomadic disposition. Is hot-tempered. Burned a mattress when angry. If he is reprimanded in any way he is giving to cursing and the use of vile language. Impudence and violence were his worst traits. He was quarrelsome and a disturbing element in a group. III-2, died at age 5 of heart trouble; was very nervous. III-3, shows definite signs of mental deficiency. Is unable to comprehend when she is cold, hungry or sick. She is subject every 3 months to attacks when she becomes sick in her stomach, dizzy and gradually unconscious, her face is drawn in nervous contortions, recovers within an hour. Is a bed-wetter. Exceedingly high tempered and at times beside herself with rage. III-4, died age 16 of tuberculosis. III-5, not in good health.

Fig. 6. I-1, had a violent temper and could make himself very obnoxious. Wife finally left him because of his ugly disposition and injustice in money matters. I-2, left her husband suddenly and he never heard from her. II-1, a very nervous man. He was violent and destructive; threatened his family and there were many quarrels. Had asthma. Was arrested because of arguments regarding labor unions. II-3, easily excited, very voluble and nervous. Shows considerable temper, whips her children over any provocation. Argues with her children far into the night. Has been in an institution for the insane. III-2, high strung and

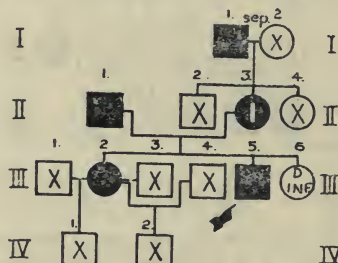


Fig. 6. Family of 142.

shows an uncontrollable temper. Is self-assertive and full of independence. Makes trouble wherever she is placed. III-5, very nervous, erratic and unstable. Has quite a temper and cannot get along with his playmates. Has hysterical lockjaw; becomes excited and jaw locks.

Fig. 7. I-1, had a large farm and was successful. Wouldn't let his children go to school when he needed them to help him. I-2, met her future husband when crossing the ocean. I-4, very jealous of his wife and she couldn't go anywhere without him. He married again, but left his wife in two weeks, obtained a divorce

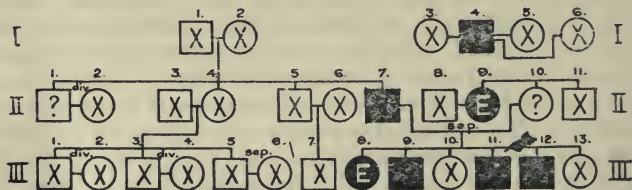


Fig. 7. Family of 176.

and married a third time. II-1, just like II-7, thought his wife was not good enough for him, so divorced her. II-3, 4, no information. II-7, ran away from home when 17. Became angry with one of his customers in his store because the man was impatient and pointed a revolver at him for which he was arrested. Ranted with his wife because she was short-changed two cents. Has a frightful temper, just grows wild at times and nearly loses his mind. Discusses his hobbies until everyone is annoyed. Deserted his family. II-9, always been a problem. When a girl, had spells in which she would shake, tremble and fall on the floor.



Seizures would last an hour. Has always been very nervous. II-10, not a strong character, unstable. Is not divorced but has men callers. Spends much of her time on the beach. Is probably immoral. II-11, died from tuberculosis. III-1, 2, divorced. III-3, 4, divorced. III-5, 6, separated. III-7, a "harum scarum" boy; been arrested for gambling. III-8, extremely nervous, had spells of irritability and sullenness. "Could look daggers through one." Has an awful temper, would have the last word or die. Was extremely nervous when 11 years old, and a little later epileptic seizures developed. Any excitement would cause them. One started when her father cursed. III-9, at first appears pleasing, but soon hows a weak make-up. Facial nervousness noted when in conversation, also fidgets about. Is beyond control of his parents. III-11, very high tempered. Can get uncontrollably angry over anything, then say he is sorry, but the same condition occurs again. Is a bed-wetter. III-12, has an uncontrollable temper. Would almost strike to kill when angry. Hits his sister as hard as he can. Yells at the family when he doesn't like anything. III-13, gave her mother lots of trouble. Was sent away from home, but she says grief will kill her if she is not permitted to return home. Is a bed-wetter.



Fig. 8. Family of 125.

Fig. 8. I-2, had asthma. I-3, a crabbed old sea captain of the roaring rough type. He is grouchy and has a fierce temper. His neighbors and son despise him. I-4, stands in awe of her husband. II-1, nervous and easily irritated. Husband reports to her doctor that he can hardly stand her irritability. She has had nervous prostration. II-2, had a terrific temper that would get away with him. Punishes his children with strappings, sometimes carrying it too far. III-1, his disobedience takes the form of bellicosity and aggravation, swears at mother and defies her authority. Lacks control of temper and actions, allows himself to fly into spells of ungovernable rage. Is a potential homicide. It took the school principal and the janitor to keep him from doing bodily harm in the schoolroom. Recently took a butcher knife to mother. His general disposition is bad. III-2, has some of the temper of his brother, but has not given so much trouble with it. III-3, a little self-willed.

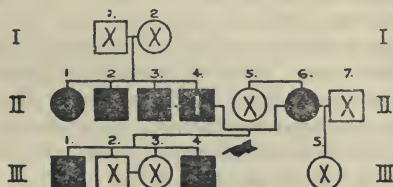


Fig. 9. Family of 117.

Fig. 9. I-1, addicted to the use of whiskey. II-1, she had a pretty bad temper like the rest of her family; had asthma. II-2, had terrific temper. II-3, a bad one, had an ugly temper; put in penitentiary for threatening to kill a man. II-4, had an ugly disposition and temper was abusive. Was in a hospital for the insane for five months. Is excitable and very talkative. II-6, very excitable and immoral. III-1, has a temper, been arrested for cruelty to animals. III-3, a prostitute. III-4, he fights, quarrels and swears at every opportunity, but is easily persuaded to behave if admonished. Stubborn with an ugly disposition and bad temper.

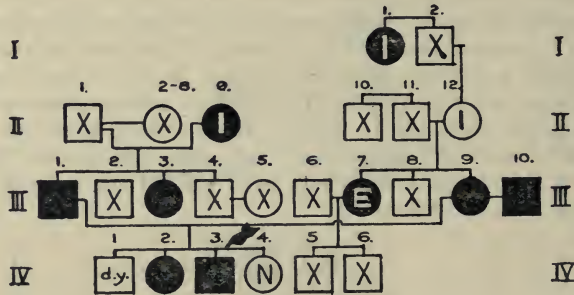


Fig. 10. Family of 186.

Fig. 10. I-1, went insane over a young man she loved, when he married. I-2, no information. II-1, drank somewhat. Had very bad headaches at times. Quite lazy. II-9, the seventh daughter. Was quite arbitrary and could never be crossed in anything. After menopause was mentally aberrated. II-10, drank. II-11, drank quite extensively. II-12 became rather queer as she grew older. Would pick up and steal little articles, often valueless, and hide them under her bed. III-1, had great imagination, always gave the impression that he and his work and everything he did was of the utmost importance. Drank heavily. Suffered from severe headaches. Liked work which took him in different places. III-3, during adolescent period, was very hysterical and nervous. III-7, a very irregular student in school due to nervousness and ill health. She couldn't sleep at night. Had epileptic attacks until her first child was born. Was quite a drinker for a woman, but no mention made of intoxication. Married and had two children. III-8, works in tire shop and is doing well. III-9, always been nervous. Had St. Vitus dance when a girl. Shows nervousness over any slight disturbance, will clasp and unclasp hands, tendency to general shakiness. Is good natured, easily led, has no initiative. Married her second husband a day before the birth of child by first husband. Was thrown in a panic at the thought of trying to rear her three small children alone, so her first endeavor was to marry again. It didn't seem to bother her any because she was marrying a blind man. He had a pension of \$100.00 a month. III-10, a veteran of the American army from the Philippines. Was broken in health and had entirely lost his eyesight when he married. Manifests great interest in children but is quite unjust and cruel in his treatment of them. Would remove his stepchildren's clothing, tie them to a chair and whip them. Is very irritable, over-bearing and unsympathetic in the home. He had a little bag of stones which he said one



child had put in his eyes and they were working out through his body. Said that they studied the anatomy of his ear with the intention of puncturing his ear-drum. He had pinched the children until they had sores on their body. An insanity complaint was filed against him but was dismissed. Is fascinated by children. Has recently taken a Chinese baby into his home. IV-1, died, age 4½ years. IV-2, wayward when small. Was given for adoption but returned to her mother as unplaceable. She is very nervous. Appeared to be in a state of nervous exhaustion. Her stepfather said she raved for seven hours. Was sent to county hospital. A notation stated probable hysteria. Has had no similar attacks. Is in second year high school. II-3, excitable, associated with nervousness. Very unstable emotionally. Breaks down with tears when his unfortunate experiences are rehearsed. Cannot stand the strain of too closely superimposed direction. Has nervous affliction which resembles St. Vitus dance, but this nervous agitation may be merely a habit spasm. IV-4, is rather shy. Does not show any of the nervousness of other members of her family.

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# The Journal of Delinquency

Published bi-monthly by Whittier State School  
WHITTIER, CALIFORNIA

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Entered as second-class matter March 27, 1916 at the Post Office at Whittier, California, under the Act of August 24, 1912. Acceptance for mailing at special rate of postage provided for in Section 1103, Act of October 3, 1917, authorized August 3, 1918.

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Vol. V

November 1920

No. 6

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## THE CALIFORNIA BUREAU OF JUVENILE RESEARCH

The California Bureau of Juvenile Research is a state department established by acts of the Legislatures of 1915 and 1917. The Bureau was created as a department of Whittier State School, where its central office is now located. The establishing act provides that the work shall extend to any institutions which may so request. At the present time the institutions affiliated for regular work are Whittier State School, California School for Girls and Preston School of Industry. Special investigations have been carried on in connection with several other institutions and agencies.

The law states that the Bureau shall be under the direction of a clinical psychologist, who "shall be given a sufficient staff of trained assistants that the intelligence level of each inmate may be established through standardized psychological tests, supplemented by personal and family history and data from such other lines of investigation as may seem advisable." The law also authorizes unlimited extension of the work, so that the Bureau may "carry on research into the causes and consequences of delinquency and mental deficiency, and shall inquire into social, educational and psychological



problems relating thereto, and for that purpose may make such investigations and inquires in the said institutions, when so requested, and elsewhere, as may be deemed advantageous." The Bureau is conceived as a public welfare measure, and foresees the benefit derived by the schools and institutions in which the studies are conducted, as well as the general value of these researches in the solution of state problems.

The law further provides for a part of the property of Whittier State School to be set aside "for the care, training, confinement, discipline, and instruction of defective persons, and for the study of mental defectiveness and the proper care of defective persons." Commitment or admission to this department may be obtained in the same manner as provided for in the case of Sonoma State Home.

Superintendent Nelles has arranged for the Bureau to occupy the buildings and grounds at the south end of the Whittier tract, formerly occupied by the California School for Girls, and later by the Junior Department of Whittier State School. Provision is being made for the care and supervision of two groups: (I) new boys received by regular commitment to the State School; (II) sub-normal and otherwise exceptional children. Both of these groups will be under special observation and study, and will be available for psychological or educational experimentation,

It is expected that most of the boys in Group I will be detained but a short time, being subject to transfer to the vocational division of the State School as soon as their intelligence tests are completed and their developmental and family histories have been prepared. The vocational division will thus receive a complete report on each boy as he is received. Follow-up and supplementary observations will be made after the transfer, and will continue through the period of each boy's stay at the school. Group I will be the official "receiving company" for state school commitments.

Group II will consist of three sub-groups: (a) boys received through regular state school commitments whose intelligence is found to be too low to justify their immediate transfer to the vocational division; (b) sub-normal children received by the Bureau upon special commitment as "defective persons;" (c) sub-normal and exceptional children received directly from their homes, through arrangements made with the Bureau by their parents or guardians. Group II will thus take on the nature of a special class, and the retention and disposition of each case will depend upon individual

factors. It is intended that the Bureau shall be a place for the study and observation of these children, and that in most cases arrangements can be made for placement in other institutions or homes. In state school commitments in which the intelligence level is found to be sufficiently high, or where special training results in marked improvement, transfer may be made to the vocational division or to Group I pending such transfer.

The Bureau thus takes on the nature of a clearing-house for the state, and with minor amendments to the law can serve in this capacity to a still greater extent. The opportunity to have children under tentative observation before final commitments are made facilitates the handling of children by public agencies, and should go far toward the discovery of preventive measures which may ultimately minimize the necessity for commitments of all kinds. From the present indications it seems not unreasonable to predict that juvenile delinquency and mental deficiency can be materially lessened through better knowledge and handling of these children during the early school period.

In addition to the study and observation of these two groups of children, the Bureau will maintain a complete supervisory staff, and at least two specially trained teachers. Supervisors and teachers will base their work on the findings of the investigators, and will assist in making observations in accordance with the procedure adopted by the research staff. The supervision will be in accordance with the "family group" plan, the home life of each group being in charge of a house-father and house-mother.

The laboratory of the Bureau is not limited to the facilities of the central headquarters, but will be state-wide in its scope. Members of the staff will be stationed at the several institutions so that each phase of work can be carried on nearest the sources of information. The distribution of the staff will depend upon the needs of the institutions, and the nature of the problems under investigation.

In carrying out the provisions of the law by which it was created, it will be the function of the Bureau of Juvenile Research to make scientific investigations into the causes, distribution, and consequences of juvenile delinquency and mental deficiency, and to study the problems related thereto. This work will require the following lines of activity:

1. Examination and classification of pupils in the state and private institutions to which the work extends.



2. Preparation of extensive supplementary data, including personal and family history.
  3. Operation of a system of observation and grading, which can be carried out by teachers, instructors and supervisors with whom the pupils come in contact.
  4. Preparation of information relative to fitness for leaving the School.
  5. Surveys of public and private schools, for the purpose of obtaining data relative to problems of special education.
  6. Devising of special tests, scales, and systems for the scientific classification of data, with special reference to factors associated with irregular conduct.
  7. Preparation of studies for our own and other periodicals.
  8. Publication of the *Journal of Delinquency*, for the purpose of disseminating scientific literature and stimulating original contributions in the field of social conduct.
  9. Publication of special studies in the form of bulletins and monographs.
  10. Collection and maintenance of a scientific library on subjects especially related to problems under investigation.
  11. The training of persons who expect to engage in special education, social service, or research work.
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## CORRESPONDENCE AND DISCUSSION

### PROGRESS IN WYOMING

The State of Wyoming has recently secured for its State School for Defectives a superintendent who is a trained psychologist—Dr. Carroll Thompson Jones, formerly of Vineland. Dr. Jones writes as follows:

“The administration end of the work here has naturally taken considerable of my time but we have given the Stanford tests to nearly all of our cases and have made a tentative classification on this basis. We have so many different types of cases here that there is a wealth of material for intensive clinical work.

“We are gradually changing the institution from a custodial institution for all types of helpless persons to a real training school for the feeble-minded and backward children of the state. We are also taking cases for observation and study and thereby establishing a research bureau similar to that at Columbus without

waiting for legislation. At the next meeting of the legislature we expect to have a law passed requiring that all juvenile delinquents be given a mental examination before commitment to any state institution."

#### WYOMING STATE SCHOOL FOR DEFECTIVES

An interesting study on the control of epileptic spasms by suggestive therapy and psycho-analysis when the degree of mentality warrants it is being carried on at the Wyoming State School for Defectives. Twelve cases of varying degrees of mentality and in varying stages of deterioration are being carefully observed for a control period without treatment of any kind. At the end of the control period intensive mental treatment, the nature of which is to be determined by the condition of the patient, will be begun. The behavior of the patients will be observed continuously and results compared with the record during the control period. Dr. Winifred Richmond, formerly psychologist at the Massachusetts State School for the Feeble-minded at Waverly, is on leave of absence from the Ohio State Bureau of Juvenile Research to assist in this piece of work.—*C. T. Jones, Superintendent.*

#### INSTITUTION REORGANIZATION IN KENTUCKY

Following the enactment of a new law relating to institution centralization and management, Mr. Joseph P. Byers, formerly of Philadelphia, has been made Commissioner of Public Institutions. The control of the institutions is vested in a single administrative board, the members of which serve without compensation, and whose chief duty lies in the appointment of the Commissioner, and in supporting his plans. The law became effective in March, 1920, and includes eight institutions. The purposes of the new organization are stated as follows:

"It is the declared purpose of this act to establish a broad, humane and practical policy by the State in the care and treatment of all State wards; to coordinate all of the various activities now engaged in or that may hereafter be engaged in on behalf of those who, by reason of mental or physical infirmities, neglect or misfortune, or on account of delinquency or crime, come under the care and custody or supervision of the State; to so direct the expenditure of public funds appropriated for the benefit of said State wards that waste and extravagance shall be as far as possible eliminated and a proper economy exercised with due regard alike to the needs of said State wards and the interests of the Commonwealth, and to that end it shall be the duty of the board hereby created:

"(a) To study the sources and causes of crime, delinquency, and dependency and as far as possible suggest and put into effect such remedial measures as may be of benefit to the Commonwealth in the prevention and ultimate eradication of anti-social acts and conditions.

"(b) To supervise the work and methods of all benevolent, charitable or correctional institutions, associations or societies other than those directly under its control and management that are supported in whole or in part by State funds. The board or its agent shall at all times have access to the records, premises and buildings of any such institution, association or society, and may require from them such information and reports as may be deemed necessary, and it shall be the duty of the proper officials of all such institutions, associations or societies, to furnish such information or reports whenever same may be called for, and failure to do so shall subject any such official to a penalty of five hundred dollars to be sued for



and collected by said board. Provided, however, that the authority herein granted shall not apply to purely educational institutions.

"(c) The Board, in its discretion, may at any time make investigation by the whole board, or by a committee of its members, of the management of any benevolent, charitable or correctional institution receiving State aid, and said board or committee, in making any such investigation, shall have power to send for persons and papers, and to administer oaths and affirmations; and the report of such investigation, with the testimony, shall be made to the Governor, and shall be submitted by him, with his suggestions, to the General Assembly."

The Board appoints a Commissioner of Public Institutions. The Commissioner is, in effect, the general manager of these institutions. He selects and nominates to the Board the superintendents or wardens of the institutions. These superintendents are charged with full responsibility for the proper conduct of their respective institutions. They have full control over all officers and employees. The new law prohibits any member of the Board from recommending anybody for any position in any of these institutions. It also provides that any member or employee of the Board, or any of the institution employees, who engages in political activities or contributes, in any manner, money or anything else of value, for election purposes shall be removed from office. Violation of this section is made a misdemeanor, subject to a fine of not less than \$50.00 nor more than \$1000.00.

All of the old offices and positions in connection with the institutions were abolished by the new law, and the new Board given authority to make provision for such officers and employees as in its judgment might be necessary.

The budget system was adopted. One appropriation for the support of all the institutions was made by the legislature, and this money was placed at the disposal of the Board, to be apportioned by it.

The Board, through committees, has charge of all the parole work.

Within the past month the Board has gone to New York for a warden, William H. Moyer, formerly at the Federal Prison at Atlanta, Georgia, later at Sing Sing; to Ohio for a superintendent for the Central State Hospital for the Insane, Dr. Walter A. Jillson, formerly of Massachusetts and later with the Public Health Service; to Indiana for the superintendent of the House of Reform for Boys and Girls, Major H. B. Hickman, formerly at the Indiana School at Plainfield, with experience and training as an educator, special training in psychology, and at the time of the appointment was director of research at the Jeffersonville Reformatory. In March a new superintendent was appointed for the Feeble-Minded Institute, and again they went to Indiana, to the Fort Wayne School for a superintendent. These items tend to indicate the disregard of politics by the Board, and their determination to put Kentucky's institutions on a high plane.

The Board has other duties involving inspection and license of private institutions, the establishment of a competitive system of purchases for our institutions, records—social, medical and others.

Not an unimportant section is the following, bearing upon the industrial organization of the institutions:

"The Board having in mind the welfare of the inmates of the several institutions under its control and the interests of the Commonwealth, shall encourage the employment in every proper way of said inmates in such ways as shall contribute to their physical, mental and moral improvement, and to their cost of their mainten-



ance; and to this end the board shall have authority to utilize the product of such inmate labor in the upkeep or maintenance of the respective institutions or for other departments of the state government and to transfer from one institution to another, or otherwise dispose of, as may in its judgment be best, any surplus products thus produced."

The old Board of Control and the former Board of Prison Commissioners were abolished and all of their rights, powers and duties conferred upon the new Board. Thus it is evident that the Board has ample authority in every direction. It is not confined and restricted in its actions by any restrictive measures in the new law. In framing this law it was kept in mind that the Board should have a perfectly free hand; to be left to devise ways and means under a broad, general policy, and this general policy the new law provides for.

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## PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

**Anderson, Meta L.** *Education of Defectives in the Public Schools.* New York: World Book Co. 1917. (School Efficiency Monographs.) pp. 104. Price 75 cents.

Characterized by Dr. Goddard in an introductory statement as being descriptive of some of the best work being done for defectives in the public schools, this book sets forth in a practical way what can and should be done for feeble-minded children who still remain problems for the local community. The plans discussed are based on the excellent work done under Miss Anderson's supervision in the schools of Newark, N. J. Special emphasis is justly placed on the necessity for recognizing defective children and teaching them to do the things which their intelligence will permit them to do successfully. Attention is also given to the problem of finding employment for these children, so that they will be able to "compete with their fellows" on terms which, if not equal, will at least be comparable. Notwithstanding the strides taken during recent years in the care of the feeble-minded, it is evident that for a long time to come there will be feeble-minded children for the public schools to train. This training can never be socially equal to segregation in institutions, but it is the only alternative if the public is to recognize the problem at all. Educating defective children to the limit of their capacities does not guarantee normal social adjustment, but it *prevents* social *mal* adjustment in enough cases to justify better work than most public schools are doing in this respect. Miss Anderson's monograph should be in the hands of every special class teacher, school principal and superintendent. It will be particularly valuable to students in training for special education, and to the many institution workers who are beginning to individualize trade and academic instruction. (J. H. W.)

**Beswick, John C.** *Vocational Education. Industrial Art Education.* Sacramento: California State Board of Education. 1920. Bulletin No. 23-c. pp. 13.

This interesting pamphlet calls attention to the important relation which art now bears to many if not all industries, saying that "successful competition is becoming more and more a matter of skilled designers and workmen." To help California hold and improve its places as an industrial state, its art talent must be developed and encouraged. Responsibility in this is placed on the public through its system of education and the recommendation is well made that the schools be more

completely equipped to discover and thoroughly train all persons really talented in art or designing. The encouragement of public exhibitions and organizations for the furthering of this line of work is urged. The final constructive suggestion of the writer is for community art organization correlated through a state-wide organization for the stimulation of industrial art. (K. M. C.)

**Burt, Cyril.** *The Development of Reasoning in School Children.* Reprinted from *The Journal of Experimental Pedagogy.* V—2, 3. June and December 1919. pp. 17. Sheffield, England.

This pamphlet includes two articles in which the author describes his scale of reasoning tests, standardized by ages for English school children. The scale includes 50 tests, arranged in age groups from 7 to 14 years, inclusive. An abbreviated scale comprising 17 selected tests gives approximately the same results according to the data. Dr. Burt concludes from his observations that reasoning ability "appears to be a function of the degree of organic complexity of which... ..attention is capable.....The development of reasoning appears to consist essentially in an increase in the number, variety, originality, and compactness of the relations which his (the child's) mind can perceive and integrate into a coherent whole." Although Professor Burt states that the tests are standardized on an unselected group of English children, a hasty perusal of them leads to the impression that for American children they would be more difficult, age for age, than are the Binet tests. Comparative standards obtained in this country would be valuable. At any rate the tests are ingenious, and constitute an interesting series. (J.H.W.)

**Christian, Frank L.** *The Management of Penal Institutions.* Elmira, N. Y. pp. 16.

In a brief summary of the essential principles of institutional management Dr. Christian outlines the modern scientific and humanitarian method of dealing with offenders against the law as compared with the out-of-date systems of punishment, confinement and repression. The modern method is summarized in his sentence, "the future prison will be both a school and a hospital, where criminality is studied and treated." Important points in administration emphasized are the need for intelligent employees of good judgment and honesty, maintenance of a healthy "institution atmosphere" by means of good food, clothing and recreational facilities, and above all the "square deal" for all with continuous supervision of discipline and proper segregation. The importance of psychiatry and psychology as related to institutional problems is stressed; ideals of mental, moral, physical and industrial education are suggested; true discipline is defined and the need for complete understanding of the so-called "incurables" is pointed out. The pamphlet is a valuable outline of a live subject which merits more complete and detailed discussion.

(K. M. C.)

**Christian, Frank L.** *Characteristics of the Population of the Elmira Reformatory.* 1920. Elmira, N. Y. 1920. pp. 11.

A definite change has been found in the characteristics of the inmates of Elmira Reformatory during the past decade. The data reported in this bulletin indicate that (1) because social agencies for reclamation of the young offender prevent commitment of intelligent young men formerly committed for first offense, an un-failing characteristic of most of the inmates is ignorance of common subjects



taught in school; (2) industrially, the group now ranges from the least employed to the unemployable; and (3) the human material received has appreciably deteriorated,—physically, mentally, in quality of ancestry, and in proportion of recidivists. Dr. Christian finds that the prospects for the eventual reclamation of the present group of inmates is much lower than formerly, and that the tendency appears to be for correctional institutions to function to a large extent as custodial asylums. (W. W. C.)

Hodgins, Frank Edgerton. *Report on the Care and Control of the Mentally Defective and Feeble-minded in Ontario*. Toronto: A. T. Wilgrass, 1919. pp. 236. (Printed by order of the Legislative Assembly of Ontario.)

This report is rendered to Sir John Strathearn Hendrie, Lieutenant-Governor of Ontario, following an inquiry by the author, who had been appointed by the Royal Commission "to consider and enquire into the existing methods of dealing with imbecile, feeble-minded, or mentally defective persons in the Province of Ontario, and .....to report as to other and more efficient and satisfactory methods and as to amendments in the law or other measures which should be adopted in the matter," etc. The report is based largely on the recent publications of American investigators, pointing out some of the better methods of investigation and treatment. The author concludes with the following statement: "We may set ourselves the task of providing an adequate framework of law for dealing with feeble-mindedness, secure in the belief that its accomplishment will not only bring a new world of security and happiness within reach of the mentally defective, but will remove from society a menacing shadow, which grows every day and every hour during which we ignore its existence." (J. H. W.)

Mangold, George B. *Children's Institutions in St. Louis*. Bulletin of Central Council of Social Agencies, I-1. Mar., 1919. pp. 16.

An analysis of the administrative problems and application of modern child welfare standards to the 32 institutions caring for about 3000 children in St. Louis. The need (1) of co-operation among the various institutions, (2) of satisfactory classification and individualization, and (3) of a placing-out department, is made clearly evident by the outline prepared by Dr. Mangold. Such a survey should be of great value in the improvement of child welfare work in any city. (W. W. C.)

Massachusetts Commission on Probation. Tenth Annual Report. 1919. Herbert C. Parsons, Secretary. Boston, Mass. pp. 79.

The trend of probation service in Massachusetts is from placing the emphasis upon reclaiming from the social scrap heap to developing the work by carrying on investigations not only as to results, but as to causes, of crime and delinquency. The tendency is for probation to be used more extensively for serious offenses against person and property. Of a group of 31,478 probationary cases reported it was considered that 82.1 per cent showed satisfactory results and 17.9 per cent unsatisfactory results. This document contains several interesting charts and numerous tables indicating the nature of offenses, court action, age and sex of offenders, etc. Massachusetts ranks among the more advanced states in dealing with the various problems of social welfare and is to be congratulated for its effort to study and deal scientifically with the problems of delinquency and criminality. (W. W. C.)



**Nalder, Frank Fielding.** *The American State Reformatory; with Special Reference to its Educational Aspects.* Berkeley: University of California Press. March 1920. pp. 467. Price \$1.80.

This is probably the most important contribution to the study of institutions in the United States since Snedden's *American Juvenile Reform Schools*, published in 1907. The American state reformatory, although little understood by the general public, is a distinct type of institution, standing between the industrial school and the penitentiary. In this position it is faced with the difficult task of maintaining a balance between its educational and penal functions. Intended for the youth who will not, or does not, respond to the opportunities afforded by the industrial school, it provides him another chance to avoid a prison sentence. The reformatory is dedicated to the theory that delinquents aged from 16 to 30 years can be reformed through a correctional educational treatment. Unfortunately, however, the educational purposes of the institution are too often lost sight of in the necessity for maintaining orderly custody. The reformatory is too likely to be taken as a modified prison rather than a specialized public school. Conceived in the latter sense, the reformatory is a useful and necessary measure under our present social organization. The author points out that there are 16 of such institutions in the United States, dating from 1876, and that these institutions house 9000 inmates, employ nearly 1000 officers and spend approximately \$3,000,000 per year. California has no reformatory although steps have been taken in that direction. In 1913 a site was purchased, but opinion at the time favored improvement in the prisons instead. The legislature of 1919 appropriated funds for a reformatory for women, which is now being definitely planned. The University of California and the author have rendered valuable service in the preparation and publication of this study.

(J. H. W.)

**National Committee on Prisons and Prison Labor.** *Prison Construction.* New York City. 1919. pp. 39.

Addresses given before a Prison Construction Conference by four leading architects are presented in this bulletin. On the basis of scientific and historical precedents Wingdale Prison, New York State, was constructed in three sections on different ground levels, with recalcitrants confined in the lowest level in the belief that the plan would "exert as beneficial an influence on our prisoners, as did the noble monument on the Acropolis at Athens on the humble people who constructed their mud-brick houses at its base." The idea was expressed that one of the greatest hindrances to the application and development of new ideas regarding the administration of public institutions are the old buildings; buildings constructed to last twenty-five years rather than seventy cost only about one-third as much, are cheaper in the long run, and allow for modification as ideas of administration change. The problem of prison construction and its relation to prison industries is given detailed consideration and is illustrated by a penitentiary being constructed in Ohio. The basic principles involved in the analysis of the requirements of a modern penitentiary are illustrated as applied to the Illinois Penitentiary at Joliet. The result of the conference was the establishment of a standing committee with sub-committees which should make for progress in this field. (W. W. C.)

**Norsworthy, Naomi and Whitley, Mary Theodora.** *The Psychology of Childhood.* New York: The Macmillan Company. 1920. pp. 375.

Written as a text for use in normal schools this book is destined to fulfill its mission most satisfactorily. It presents in an orderly and interesting form the results of educational research and experiment during the past few years discussing, in its seventeen chapters: the source and characteristics of original nature, tendencies resulting in action, unsocial instincts, social instincts, tendencies accompanied by affective states, attention, sense perception, memory, imagination, thinking, general tendencies of all the tendencies, habit and learning, play, sequent tendencies, moral and religious development, physical development, a cross section of child life at five and at eleven, exceptional children, methods used in child psychology. A good glossary and index are appended while the exercises and questions for discussion which follow each chapter will be found helpful in stimulating independent study and thinking. Adhering strictly to the scientific attitude the authors have at the same time injected much of their own vital art and enthusiasm into this work so that the student who uses it will feel in no small degree that strengthening of purpose and inspiration that came to those whose privilege it has been to work under their direct supervision. (J.M.)

**Paget, Stephen.** *Adolescence.* New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1919. pp. 46.

A popular dissertation, prepared and given as a lecture to a group of Oxford University students. The appeal is chiefly to young men, urging clean living, and better instruction in matters of personal hygiene. (J. H. W.)

**Thacher, George A.** *Why Some Men Kill; or Murder Mysteries Revealed.* Portland: Pacific Coast Rescue and Protective Society. 1919. pp. 124.

Reviewing the evidence at the time of trial or discovered after the conviction of three persons for murder, this volume presents data which should result in the release of these persons wrongfully charged with murder and in the conviction of the defective and criminal beings who committed the crimes, and should lead to the "bringing of the question of the criminal tendencies of high grade feeble-minded men before the public in order that sensible measures may be considered for limiting the procreation of feeble-minded stock." Details concerning the murders are of conclusive significance and indicative of the importance of care and supervision of the feeble-minded. (W. W. C.)

**Todd, Arthur James.** *The Scientific Spirit and Social Work.* New York: The Macmillan Company. 1919. pp. 212. Price \$2.00

An application of fundamental sociological principles to social problems and an illuminating discussion of scientific methods are presented in this volume. Professional standing and scientific technique are considered as essential to adequate social service work and are given specific application to various related problems. Illustrative of the substance of the book are the nine chapter headings, -Natural rights and social wrongs, The philosophy of social betterment, Recent tendencies in social reform, The scientific spirit and social work, Sentimentality and social reform, The dead center in social work, The labor turnover in social agencies, The adventurous attitude in social work, and Social progress and social work. The entire book is suggestive and inspiring, entirely readable, and written in a lucid style. For those who wish to see social work attain a professional status and for those who desire a comprehensive statement and analysis of the place of science in the study of social problems, this volume is to be highly commended.

(W. W. C.)



U. S. Bureau of Education. *Further Steps in Teaching Health*. Health Education No. 6. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office. 1920. pp. 21.

A popular illustrated pamphlet, setting forth some practical suggestions to teachers and school officers in the promotion of health and hygienic living. If the simple rules herein given were faithfully followed in all schools, it is safe to believe that educational efficiency would be markedly improved. (J. H. W.)

U. S. Children's Bureau. *Standards of Child Welfare*. Bureau Publication No. 60. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office. 1919. pp. 457.

A report of the Children's Bureau Conferences held in May and June, 1919. About sixty lectures and addresses are grouped in six divisions, as follows: I. The Economic and Social Basis for Child Welfare Standards; II. Child Labor; III. The Health of Children and Mothers; IV. Children in Need of Special Care; V. Standardization of Child Welfare; VI. Standards. A wide range of selection is represented among the speakers, the list including Ogburn, Breckenridge, Lovejoy, Chadsey, Chapin, Terman, Emerson, Lusk, Hart and other well-known workers. A part of one section (pp. 368-390) was devoted to the subject "The Care of Juvenile Delinquents" including discussions of the organization of children's courts, standards of probation and medico-psychological study. The publication of such reports by the Children's Bureau will aid materially in the improvement of child welfare work. (J. H. W.)

Williams, J. Harold. *A Survey of Pupils in the Schools of Bakersfield, California*. By the Research Staff at Whittier State School. Whittier, California: Whittier State School, Department of Research. Bulletin No. 9, June 1920. pp. 43. Price 5 cents.

This survey of 2472 pupils was carried out in five days, and gives an interesting report on the mental, educational, physical and character qualities of the pupils. In addition to standard tests, teachers' ratings are quite extensively used. The mental findings depend perhaps too much on teachers' ratings. The emphasis is laid upon more provision for the retarded pupils, although the problem of the bright child is not overlooked. The organization of special classes for the backward is urged. Only one group mental test was used, namely, Whipple's "Marble Statue." The most novel and refreshing part of the work is the analysis by means of teachers' ratings of the temperament and conduct of the pupils and the correlation of these traits with the intelligence ratings. Backward and mentally inferior children are much more troublesome than superior children and these more so than the average, and so forth. All of which suggests the need for and value of more objective scales for the measurement of character qualities. Finally the report shows how profitably the teachers can cooperate in a survey of this kind. (Rudolf Pintner.)

Yoakum, Clarence S. and Yerkes, Robert M. *Army Mental Tests*. New York: Henry Holt and Company. 1920. pp. 303.

A popular and authoritative account of the intelligence testing of one and three quarter million soldiers in the U. S. Army during the Great War. Besides reproducing the Examiner's Guide and various test forms used, the book contains chapters on Making the Tests, Methods and Results, Army Tests in the Students' Army Training Corps and Colleges, and Practical Applications. As an accurate account of the most important experiment ever undertaken in applied psychology,



the book should be of universal interest. It contains, especially, suggestions of great value for social workers, educators, employment managers, and business men generally. The recent advances of civilization have been largely along material lines. There is reason to believe that some of the important advances of the next hundred years will come from attention to the psychological factors of human progress. (L. M. T.)

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## PERIODICAL LITERATURE

**Juvenile Delinquency.** The Italian theory of delinquency maintains neglected childhood is the source and seed of habitual criminality with precocity as one of the traits of the born criminal; lays stress on the theory that crime is based on abnormality and is fostered by environment, physical and social; under social influences includes (1) demoralized homes, (2) industrial conditions in which idle children drift into misdemeanors, (3) crowded population without recreational opportunities, (4) racial factors, and (5) marriage of defectives increasing the number of defective offspring; says that the subjective causes of crime are biological and psychological including sex and degeneracy; criminality is an acquired characteristic due to a defect which is transmissible or else to environment. Among juveniles the need seems to be to change the environment and socialize the child. Modern psychological classification defines three groups: (1) the born or instinctive criminal, (2) the habitual criminal, and (3) the single offender who commits an act under stress of temptation. According to the Italians prevention is of little value, punishment being more important. Devon recognizes crime as a social problem and states that study of the beginner in crime would prevent the formation of what is known as the criminal class. Juvenile offenders are children who have used their powers in the wrong direction. The modern tendency is to recognize the need of an environment of honesty and moral decency for the neglected child. The probation system and farm schools are outgrowths of this recognition. Present needs are for directing a child's tendencies rather than repressing them. Improvement in economic conditions should result in a decrease in crime. The beginning of juvenile delinquency can only be checked by the removal of causal conditions; temptation, for example, must be removed as far as possible. For the best results children must be educated not only physically and mentally but morally and industrially as well.—*M. I. Doebelin*. *School and Society*, XI-286, June 19, 1920, pp. 725-732, and XI-287, June 26, 1920, pp. 757-760. (K. M. C.)

**Criminals and College Students.** By test, the median intelligence of white men of the American army including officers and that of 3328 white criminals was the same; with the negro criminal median slightly higher than the level of negroes of the army. 104 white women prisoners measure 21 points below the estimated average for the general female white population. Apparently the difference between the average individual and the average criminal is not a difference that can be expressed in terms of intelligence; one might be justified in assuming that the same characteristics which make for success in business also make for success in crime. In Miami University the more abstract subjects demand a higher level of

intelligence to earn "A" grades than do the more concrete. The average intelligence of those dropping out of college during the year is distinctly below the general average. The lower group of such people border very dangerously on the average and criminal intelligence; that fact together with their habit of non-conformity establishes increased possibilities in their case for the commission of crime. Study shows that the crimes committed by persons having lower levels of intelligence are offenses against persons while those with higher levels offend against property. Likewise in trades the more abstract professions demand higher levels of intelligence than do the more concrete skilled trades. Practical application of these conclusions would be for students' advisers to steer students of lower levels of intelligence away from abstract subjects; in prophylaxis of crime workers should stimulate dormant interests in the concrete occupations which fit individual abilities. The same principles should apply in vocational guidance.—*Carl Murchuson*. *School and Society*, XII-288. July 3, 1920. pp. 24-30. (K. M. C.)

**Handling Juvenile Delinquencies.** The method of handling children's offenses has greatly improved during the last two or three centuries. First, children were treated as adults and then, discovering that their degree of individual responsibility was less, they ceased to be classed as criminal and were termed delinquents. Will the next step be the elimination of the Juvenile Court and the substitution of a conference between an official not a judge and the parent and child?—*W. O. S.* *National Humane Review*, VIII-7, July 1920. pp. 130-131. (E. K. B.)

**Facilities for Study of Delinquency Provided Bureau of Juvenile Research.** The Bureau of Juvenile Research was established in Ohio in May, 1918, and has used the most advanced policy in reclaiming juvenile delinquents. The offenders are no longer sent directly to penal institutions, but under a legislative act creating the bureau, courts of the state are required to commit all minors needing state care to the State Board of Administration which turns them over to the new bureau for observation and study. Mental and physical tests and investigations of home environment are made to determine the cause of delinquency and enable the department to prescribe the proper treatment. The work has been handicapped due to the inability to assign cases to suitable institutions after the diagnosis has been made, because of crowded conditions in state institutions. The cases vary from the feeble-minded, psychopathic to normal. The function of the bureau is conceived to be as much of a help in making superior citizens as to prevent the development of criminals. The bureau is situated on state land adjoining the Columbus State Hospital where it has facilities for caring for the children during observation. While the work thus far has been limited in scope, enough has been done to indicate the opportunities for good which are open in this field when an adequate personnel and facilities for treatment are available.—*Ohio State Institution Journal*, II-4, Apr. 1920. pp. 20-24. (M. S. C.)

**Difficulties Encountered in Dealing with Mental and Delinquent Cases.** Following an active but ineffective interest by local press and public in the problem of mental defect when a "half-wit" is committed to an institution for some offense against society, admission to hospitals for insane show a temporary increase including in addition to frank insane some borderline and delinquent cases. Soon the popular furor is over, relatives begin to request that the patient be given his liberty and, when the institution properly refuses, enlist the aid of the press, politicians,



lawyers and doctors. Newspapers, by publishing reports without investigating, may create prejudice to the institution; lawyers may obtain a writ of habeas corpus and judges release patients without consulting those informed of the actual conditions in the case to the detriment of the community to which the person will return; even physicians occasionally aid in this undesirable process. Just criticism will always do good and stimulate the one subjected to the ordeal to do better and to improve conditions, but misrepresentations result in a great deal of trouble. The responsibility of the general public does not end with the commitment of a delinquent or psychopath to an institution; they should give the institution a square deal and their co-operation.—*Edward A. Foley*. *Illinois Medical Journal*, XXXVIII-4, Oct. 1920. pp. 296-300. (W. W. C.)

**The Minimum of Medical Insight Required by Social Workers with Delinquents.** The social worker who would understand delinquent acts must be familiar with the unequal endowments of different individuals, with their differences in intelligence, in emotional response, in sources of energy, physical vitality, of special sense organs and of bodily systems. In the study of the delinquent act the situation must be kept in mind. Truancy may be the reaction of a healthy boy to a subnormal school situation. The social worker must have insight into the manifestations of inferiority in these different spheres in childhood, adolescence, maturity, senescence; must be familiar with the whole field of mental defect and nervous instability. She must know something of the effect on conduct of insufficient food or sleep, of pain, fatigue, bad air, alcohol and other poisons; she must have some insight into the complexity of the instinctive and the emotional life and of the total personality. Emphasis should be placed on the attitude of the worker; she should cling tenaciously to accurate observations and easily intelligible formulation.—*C. Macfie Campbell*. *Mental Hygiene*, IV-3, July, 1920. pp. 513-520. (M. S. C.)

**The Industrial School.** There is a close relationship existing between the juvenile court and the industrial school. The first of these divisions consists in locating the youth who is in danger of becoming an undesirable member of society. Second, the treatment and education in an institution of those committed. Third, returning the youths from institution to society. In the first instance the juvenile court works alone, as does the institution in the second treatment, but in the third treatment both are concerned. In this work the court and the school are both cogs in a single machine and neither can function properly without the sincere co-operation of the other. This problem of selecting homes for the paroled youth is really the most important phase of the work. In an undesirable home the child will undoubtedly again become a ward of the state. As a general rule, a report should be obtained on the child by the institution once a month. Every boy and girl should have the fullest rights and privileges compatible with the welfare society. No barrier should be placed in the path of the young man or woman who by some mistake has been placed in an industrial school.—*John McNamara*. *Ohio State Institution Journal*, II-4, Apr. 1920. pp. 31-34. (M. S. C.)

**Some Characteristics of the Criminal Insane.** This is a study of the 646 patients admitted for the first time to the Matteawan State Hospital during the period from October 1, 1912, to July 1, 1915. Of these, 80.2 per cent were males and 19.8 per cent females, a far greater proportion of males than is found in the civil

state hospitals. The inmates at Matteawan are younger since the majority of crimes are committed by persons under 40 years of age. Of the 646 first admissions, 51.7 per cent were native born and 48.0 per cent foreign born. These percentages are out of proportion to the per cent of foreign born in the population of the state and show that the rate of criminal insanity among the foreign born is higher than among the native population. The patients from Italy and Russia were relatively more prominent while the negroes were nearly three times more common at Matteawan than in the general population of the State. Regarding crimes causing commitment "it is noteworthy that among the male patients 11.4 per cent were charged with disorderly conduct and 26.4 per cent with vagrancy. Among the women patients 18 per cent were charged with disorderly conduct, 16.4 per cent with public intoxication and 39.8 per cent with vagrancy and prostitution." Felonies constituted 34.1 per cent and misdemeanors 65.9 per cent of this group of crimes. Of the felonies, more were committed by Italians, while of the misdemeanors more were committed by the Irish. A study of the psychoses of this group showed "relatively few senile or cerebral arteriosclerotic cases, but high percentages of alcoholic, constitutionally inferior and mental deficiency cases." The manic-depressive psychoses are less common among criminal insane than among civil insane while dementia praecox stands about the same in each group. There appears to be some relationship between the type of psychosis and the crime causing commitment. Of those cases first committed to penal institutions, later coming to Matteawan, nearly all possessed psychoses of such a nature that proper diagnosis before the penal commitment was possible.—*William J. Nolan*. New York State Hospital Quarterly, V-3, May 1920. pp. 362-379. (E. K. B.)

**The Psychological Examination of Conscientious Objectors.** The data used were taken from the records of about 1000 objectors from some twenty camps. While these represent not quite half of the total number of objectors in the army, the writer feels that they are a fair sampling. In intelligence their average is above that of the white draft of the army as a whole. 46.5 per cent of objectors grade above C on the army tests, while only 27.3 per cent of the army as a whole show a grade above C. 28.6 per cent of objectors are below C, while the army as a whole shows 47.9 per cent below. The ratio of the A and B men of the army as a whole to the A and B men of the objectors is 1:2. About half of 1060 objectors were of the Mennonite faith. The Friends, Brethern, Dunkards, International Bible Students and Israelites of the House of David constitute about 25 per cent. Of 958 cases, 90 per cent object on religious grounds, 5 per cent on social, 3 per cent on political, and 2 per cent on ethical grounds. Examinations were given by psychologists in an effort to determine: (1) the objectors intelligence and mental soundness; (2) his educational and occupational history; (3) his religious experiences, knowledge of his church, creed, etc.; (4) his moral habits and social outlook. As a result three types stand out clearly. First, the *religious-literalist* type. This includes most of the Mennonites, Dunkards and many of the obscure denominations. Their objections are based on an appeal to the Bible church and creed. Second, the *religious-idealist* type. Contrary to the first group, these are men with too much rather than too little social vision and with an unwillingness to sacrifice their ideals to expediency. This is the type usually found in the disciplinary barracks. Third, the *Socialist* type—educated, intelligent, with a



patriotism that recognises no "national" limits. About 75 per cent fall into the first class, while the second and third types constitute about 25 per cent.—*Mark A. May*. *American Journal of Psychology*, XXXI-2. April, 1920. pp. 152-165. (J. M.)

**The Tonus of Autonomic Segments as Causes of Abnormal Behavior.** The postural tensions of the autonomic segments give rise to afferent streams of feeling, the affective cravings (emotions, sentiments) which, as our wishes, determine our thought and behavior. The autonomic system is well co-ordinated at birth and begins at once to assume control of the projicient apparatus. Here begins at the same time an important and lasting influence, the incessant and continuous conditioning pressure of the social herd upon the autonomic apparatus, molding and shaping its methods of acquiring gratification of its needs. Adaptation to the group demands self-control on the part of each individual. A vigorous compensatory striving comes in here to develop this control and gradually the socially conditioned segments become integrated into a unity which controls the individual autonomic segments. This compensatory unity becomes the ego and segmental functions are regarded as "mine," my arm, heart, etc. The personality is divided into affective cravings that constitute the ego, and those cravings that the ego must control, refine and eliminate. Conflict ensues. Various solutions of this conflict occur. The ego may repress the craving and sublimate in a creative career (artistic, religious, philosophic or scientific) or it may regress to a lower social group where it can avoid censure and still win some esteem, or the segment may win out and eventually destroy the egoistic integrations and freely pursue its primitive course. To know and master ones segmental reactive tendencies is at once the most important and most difficult thing in the world, but for the psychopath there is no alternative.—*Edward J. Kempf*. *Journal of Nervous and Mental Disease*, LI-1. Jan. 1920. pp. 1-14. (J. M.)

**The Handicap of the Dependent Child.** The dependent child is an important social factor because he is unusually predisposed to influences which make for delinquency and social inefficiency. This is so because of inherited tendencies, physical and intellectual handicap, early adverse social influences and, most of all, because of the emotional disturbances incident to family break down which is termed the dependency complex. This complex is likely to develop with the development of social consciousness of dependency. If the compensatory process is overdone, he is almost sure to have feelings of grudge, resentment, jealousy, malice, persecution, etc.; if underdone, he is likely to have feelings of depression, inadequacy, self-pity and the like. The child seldom admits or even recognizes the psychopathological processes of the dependency complex and usually meets attempts to analyze it with stern resistance. However, it may be dealt with (1) by recognition of the part this emotional complex plays in the child's daily life by the persons who direct him, and (2) by sincere and wise effort to compensate the dependency feeling by intimate, sympathetic talks and by securing for the dependent child conditions of living in home and neighborhood which should make him feel as nearly as possible on a par with other children in the community.—*Alberta S. Guibord*. *Survey*, XLIV-18, Aug. 16 1920. pp. 614-617. (W. W. C.)

**The Reconstruction of the Family.** The key-note of present day social work is the seeking for causes of anti-social conditions and conduct. While no two cases are identical, there is a generic likeness running through large groups of defective and delinquent classes. Not only the immediate cause of the trouble must be ascertained, but the heredity found in the parents must be analyzed. To accomplish this the services of both a psychologist and psychiatrist are necessary. With out their expert knowledge and diagnosis no accurate prognosis is possible. The parole system is valuable, but it must be properly administered to fulfill its full mission and the parole officer must keep in close touch with the individual in his charge. Adult reformation is uncertain, but once the adult has proven himself worthless and every available measure for his rehabilitation has been applied in vain, it is best to remove him from his family that his contaminating influences may be eliminated. "The welfare of the child should be the first consideration. The child should never be sacrificed to pay for the crimes of the parents."—*Mrs. Theodore Workum*. *National Humane Review*, VIII-8, Aug. 1920. pp. 146-159. (E. K. B.)

**The Relation of Physical Education to Moral Development.** Modern educational theory recognizes the interdependence and the organic unity of mind and body, emphasizing the need of cultivating them together in order that both may attain the highest degree of excellence. Physical education, then, is an integral and fundamental factor in the educational process. Simple and temporary physical disturbances or ailments often cause marked perversion of the moral sense while chronic organic disease not infrequently leads to crime. In dealing with the offenses and wrong conduct of children parents and teachers should look for the physical cause first; to discipline children with disregard of the physical causes underlying their conduct is to commit against them a grave injustice. Criminals of the lowest type are characterized by physical defects and degeneracy, the mental deformity often due to remediable physical defects. Recent examinations of feeble-minded and backward children have revealed the facts that the causes of mental, moral and educational arrest are largely physical. Moral education should permeate the entire educational process which must keep in mind that the relation of the physical well-being of an individual to his mental and moral life is vital and basic. A true respect for the laws of health and physical righteousness provides the best basis for the highest mental and moral development.—*J. M. McCutcheon*. *School and Society*, XII-238. July 3, 1920. pp. 12-14. (K.M.C.)

**Syphilis and the State Institution.** A study of the incidence of syphilis in the family of a syphilitic has been and is still being made in New York by the State Board of Health through its Bureau of Venereal Diseases. "Just how many defectives, deficient and delinquents are so because of syphilitic ancestors is every day becoming a more and more engrossing question." It was found advisable to employ nurses and social workers in connection with the clinics and in this way were found members of the family in early stages of the disease. In a number of cases, families had been broken up and the children placed in orphanages. Blood tests were made of children in State, private and semi-private institutions. Specimens were taken from three to four thousand children and about four per cent gave a suggestive reaction. Less than one and a half per cent gave a four plus reaction. Both the investigators and the institutions had expected a much larger percentage of



positive reactions. Conditions found in the family history led to the belief that additional statistics should be gathered. The study of the families of the children giving positive or suggestive reactions frequently revealed one or both members of the family in state hospitals. On several occasions the parents were reported to have died of tuberculosis, but the absence of any records of tests left it an open question whether the cause was tuberculosis or tertiary syphilis. Every effort is being made to secure reports of the disease, particularly in the early stages.—*Joseph S. Lawrence*. *New York State Hospital Quarterly*, V-4, Aug. 1920. pp. 443-447. (E. K. B.)

**The Anti-Vice Movement in California.** In 1909-10 vice-exploiting enterprises were practically unmolested in San Francisco. A report issued by the San Francisco Board of Supervisors in 1910 charges that a notorious assignation, five stories in height had been erected by a trust company. People of social prominence were known to accept profits from such establishments. In 1911 a bill was introduced to confiscate property used for purposes of lewdness, but the Assembly was not permitted to act upon it. Two years later the bill was passed, undoubtedly due to the fact that in the meantime the women had been given the right to vote and the legislative districts were re-apportioned, giving greater representation from Los Angeles County. The law now provided that a citizen could proceed against property used for purposes of immorality. San Francisco paused for twenty-four hours; nothing happened, then vice ran on as before. This was not true, however, of the eleven southern counties which had become populated with New England and middle west families with stricter standards than those in control in the northern part of the state. Rev. Paul Smith worked hard on the crusade in San Francisco, but in two years after the Abatement Act had become effective, little had been accomplished. Later with the aid of the Law Enforcement League, headway in the north was finally gained. The Morals Efficiency Association covers the eleven southern counties of California. Another phase of the activities of the League and Association has been the closing of gambling places, drug selling agencies and blind pigs.—*Franklin Hichborn*. *Social Hygiene*, VI-2. Apr. 1920. pp. 213-226. (M. S. C.)

**The Struggle against Venereal Diseases and Prostitution in Switzerland.** The French-Swiss societies have formed a committee for social and moral hygiene to study and fight immorality and venereal diseases. It pursues the following objectives; (a) sexual instruction of children in home and school; (b) popular instruction regarding the venereal peril; (c) preventive care and reinstatement; (d) struggle against obscenity; (e) struggle against alcoholism, and (8) social reforms. The collaboration of all of those who have the good of the country at heart is exacted. The "Pedagogical Commission" has worked for two years to discover a suitable manner to instruct the younger generation on sex questions. The first information should come in the home. This should be followed by lessons in natural science in the school before the child has reached the aged of puberty. Later a special course in human anatomy and physiology should be given in the secondary schools. Sex hygiene should be a part of general hygiene which all people ought to know. It is to be hoped by following these different steps of instruction that future generations will be more frank, self-respecting and healthy.—*Natalie Wintsch-Maleeff*. *Social Hygiene*, VI-2, April, 1920. pp. 255-262. (M. S. C.)

**Child Protection in Denmark.** Child welfare work in Denmark is divided between public and private agencies. Legislation of the past ten years provides for the payments of subsidies to children of indigent widows and widowers, unmarried women, abandoned, separated and divorced wives. In each of the 1,000 districts of Denmark there is at least one council for the protection of children. This council, whose rulings are final, has jurisdiction over a "child under eighteen years who has committed a criminal act, involving moral corruption or neglect" and may take "children under fifteen who are exposed to moral corruption." In 1917 slightly fewer than seven hundred children were removed from their parents or guardians. Every effort is made to strengthen the tie between parent and child when the latter has been placed under institutional care. Denmark realizes the necessity for systematic preventive work among neglected and delinquent children. The establishment of day nurseries, playgrounds and industrial schools is a recognized need. Correlated to this preventive work is the proposal to subsidize large families and thus in a measure remove the severe economic hardships imposed on those having large families.—*Andreas Boje*. National Humane Review, VIII-6, June 1920. p. 108. (E. K. B.)

## INSTITUTION REPORTS

**California.** *The Boys Aid Society of California.* Forty-fifth Annual Report. 1919. George C. Turner, superintendent. San Francisco, California. pp. 64.

This Society cares for homeless, neglected, or abused children of California; receives, by legal commitment or otherwise, boys from the juvenile courts, provides for them until suitable homes or employment and oversight are found, and continues systematic attention to their condition and treatment. It maintains a free employment bureau, a graded school, reading rooms and library, a home for working boys and a summer camp. The entire report is interestingly written and is illustrated with pictures indicating the quality of the care provided for dependent and delinquent boys placed in charge of the Society. (W. W. C.)

**Indiana.** *State Prison.* Annual Report. 1919. Edward J. Fogarty, warden. Michigan City, Indiana. pp. 56.

Of 237 prisoners received during the year, 93 or 39.2 per cent were convicted of crimes against the person, 127 or 53.6 per cent against property, and 17 or 7.2 per cent against public order. One hundred and fifty or 63.3 per cent had not been convicted previously. The parole department reports 26.9 per cent parole violations. The Hospital for Insane Criminals is a department of Indiana State Prison and when a prisoner shows sufficient mental derangement he may be transferred. (W. W. C.)

**Indiana.** *State Prison.* Annual Report. 1918. Edward J. Fogarty, warden. Michigan City, Indiana. pp. 54.

Of interest in this report is the statement by the physician that "the greatest individual menace we have to contend with here is tuberculosis." (W. W. C.)

**Iowa.** *Industrial School for Girls.* Twenty-fifth Biennial Report of the Superintendent and Sixth Biennial Report of the State Agent. June 30, 1916. Lucy M. Sickels, superintendent. Mitchellville, Iowa. pp. 60.



It is stated that the main purpose of this school is to instruct the girls in home-making, including domestic science, sewing, millinery, dressmaking, mending, laundry work, gardening and care of poultry. Of the 96 girls on parole and under the care of state agent the conduct record was,—excellent, 47; good, 30; fair, 9; poor, 11, indicating that nearly 80 per cent were succeeding well or fairly well.

(W. W. C.)

**Kansas.** *Girls' Industrial School.* Fifteenth Biennial Report. 1918. Lillian M. Mitchner, superintendent. Beloit, Kansas. pp. 19.

That the need of individuation and scientifically ascertained data as a basis of administration are recognized is indicated by this brief report. It is stated that, of the 167 girls in the institution, 12 are custodial cases and twice as many are sub-normal; it is desired that every girl received should be given a psychological examination. A well equipped laundry is considered of especial vocational value for girls. The parole officer reports much better success with girls placed in foster-homes, carefully selected, and has been led to conclude on basis of three years' experience that a girl seldom, if ever, should be permitted to return to her own home. She estimates that about 70 per cent of the girls on parole under her charge have made satisfactory records. (W. W. C.)

**New Hampshire.** *Industrial School.* Biennial Report. 1918. V. E. Backus, superintendent. Manchester, New Hampshire. pp. 22.

A brief report of a school caring for 48 girls and 181 boys, giving little indication of the nature or quality of the care and treatment afforded. A special problem appears to arise in the case of older boys, committed to await trial. (W. W. C.)

**New York.** *State Board of Charities.* Fifty-third Annual Report. 1919. William R. Stewart, President. Albany, N. Y. pp. 192.

A well prepared report summarizing the organization, activities, and needs of the state of New York in the field of charities and correction. Sixteen state, and 233 public and 604 private institutions and agencies are subject to inspection by the Board. For the purpose of inspection and supervision the Board work is divided into four divisions: (1) children (except sick and mentally defective), (2) medical charities, (3) adult wards, and (4) mental defect and delinquency. Brief reports concerning the individual institutions and agencies, with analysis of the movement of population and a three-class rating on the basis of plant and administration efficiency are given. Of special interest is the report of the Division of Mental Defect and Delinquency of which Dr. Chester L. Carlisle is superintendent. A discussion concerning "Social Unrest and Delinquency" is especially noteworthy.

(W. W. C.)

**New York.** *State Agricultural and Industrial School.* Seventy-first Annual Report of Board of Managers. 1919. Hobart H. Todd, superintendent. Industry, N. Y. pp. 93.

An industrial school with advanced administrative ideas is indicated by this annual report. A well-organized educational department with nineteen school teachers and superintendent, practical vocational instructor, full-time Catholic and Protestant chaplains, psychological examinations, and an after-care department of seven persons, signify that an unusual degree of care and training is provided for the average population of 765 boys in the school and a total of 2027 boys under parole supervision. (W. W. C.)

United States. *National Training School for Boys*. Annual Report. 1919. G. A. Sterling, superintendent. Washington, D. C. pp. 9.

A brief statement summarizing the work of the School and including statistical tables indicating the movement of population, causes of commitment, nationality, religion, parental conditions, and educational status. There is an enrollment of about 400, nearly one half of whom are committed from courts outside the District of Columbia. The School has recently completed a central school building and employs six teachers; "aside from schoolroom instruction boys have the advantage of vocational training, such as carpentry, painting and mixing of paints, plumbing and steamfitting, care and management of steam boilers, general blacksmithing, tailoring, shoemaking and repairs to same, sloyd and cabinet work, floriculture, gardening, care of stock and dairy, general farming, general baking and cooking." (W. W. C.)

Washington. *State Training School*. Biennial Report, 1918. Thomas P. Horn, superintendent. Chehalis, Wash. pp. 12.

This training school for delinquents labors under much the same difficulty as many others. While appreciating the need of vocational and educational programs, funds are not available for definite constructive work along these lines, owing to the fact that public ignorance compels the state to employ men and women who are not fitted for the work on account of inadequate salaries. The merit system and military training are considered as indispensable factors in the school organization. (W. W. C.)

West Virginia. *State Board of Control*. Fifth Biennial Report. Vol. 5, Parts I and II, 1919. E. B. Stephenson, president. Charleston, W. Va. pp. 763.

The board of control presents a voluminous and detailed report covering in Part I the penal, charitable and correctional institutions, and in Part II the educational institutions and other subjects under state control. Reports of the various superintendents indicate a desire to apply scientific methods and individual treatment. Science may agree with the statement (outlining the need for an institution for the feeble-minded) that the feeble-minded are "unfortunate creatures whose frames have outgrown their grey matter" but we may wonder whether it has been demonstrated that "the percentage of restoration to normal mentality would be quadrupled" by state care. (W. W. C.)





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THE  
JOURNAL OF DELINQUENCY

Volume VI

1921

PUBLISHED BI-MONTHLY BY  
CALIFORNIA BUREAU OF JUVENILE RESEARCH  
WHITTIER STATE SCHOOL  
WHITTIER, CALIFORNIA, U. S. A.



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### NOTE CONCERNING PAGING

Through an error in the first issue for 1921, the paging of Volume VI was continued from the previous volume, beginning with page 271 instead of page 1. The next volume will begin with page 1.



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# The Journal of Delinquency

Volume VI

JANUARY, 1921

Number 1

## A MENTAL SURVEY OF THE CONNECTICUT INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL FOR GIRLS

JOHN E. ANDERSON,  
*Yale University*

- I. Individual Examinations with the Yerkes-Bridges Point Scale.
- II. Group Examinations with Army Test Alpha.
- III. Comparison of Group and Individual Examination Results.
- IV. Relation of Grade Location to Mental Age and Chronological Age.

During the years 1919 and 1920 a mental survey was made of the inmates and admissions to the Connecticut Industrial School for Girls at Middletown, Connecticut. This institution receives girl offenders between the ages of eight and sixteen years, who remain under the guardianship of the institution until they are twenty-one years old. Common causes for the placing of girls in the institution are; vagrancy, sexual delinquency, thievery, incorrigibility, and lack of a proper home. Notwithstanding the large foreign population of Connecticut, almost every girl in the institution is able to read and write English because of previous attendance at American schools.

In making the survey every girl—311 in all—was given an individual examination with the Yerkes-Bridges Point Scale. Subsequently 197 girls from this group were given Army Alpha Form 6, in groups averaging forty. The remainder of the 311 girls had been placed on parole or discharged by the time the group examination was given.

### I. INDIVIDUAL EXAMINATIONS WITH THE YERKES-BRIDGES POINT SCALE

In presenting the results of the individual examinations, the Yerkes-Wood<sup>1</sup> norms are used. Following the practice of Curtis<sup>2</sup> intelligence quotients are calculated, 16 years being used as the

1. R. M. Yerkes and L. Wood, *J. Educ. Psych.* Vol. VII, 1916, pp. 593-606.

2. Curtis, J. N., *J. Abnormal Psych.* Vol. XIII, 1918, pp. 77-118.

chronological age of those over 16. Coefficients of intelligence age are not employed.

Among the 311 girls examined there were 29 colored girls. Since the differences between the mean chronological ages of the white and colored girls and between the mean mental ages were insignificant and since their educational training had been similar, no distinction between the races is made in handling the results.

Table I gives the distribution of mental ages and chronological ages of the 311 girls.

TABLE I. DISTRIBUTION OF CHRONOLOGICAL AGES AND MENTAL AGES, 311 DELINQUENT GIRLS.

Age	Chronological		Mental	
	Cases	Per cent	Cases	Per cent
6 .....	0 .....	0. ....	2.....	0.6
7.....	0.....	0. ....	2.....	0.6
8 .....	1.....	0.3.....	13.....	4.2
9.....	1.....	0.3 .....	21.....	6.8
10.....	2.....	0.6.....	52.....	16.7
11.....	8.....	2.6 .....	58.....	18.7
12.....	18.....	5.8.....	37.....	11.9
13.....	23.....	7.4.....	33.....	12.2
14.....	39.....	12.6.....	31.....	10.3
15.....	66.....	21.3.....	16.....	5.1
16.....	58.....	18.7.....	16.....	5.1
17.....	41.....	13.2.....	5.....	1.6
18.....	28.....	9.0.....	20.....	6.4
19.....	9.....	2.9 .....		
20.....	14.....	4.5 .....		
21.....	3.....	1.0 .....		

The mean mental age of the group is 12.7 years and the mean chronological age 16.0 years. The standard deviation of the mental age is 2.65 years and of the chronological age 2.24 years. As the highest possible mental age is 18 years and the highest chronological age 21 years the two distributions are not strictly comparable.

A study of the retardation is presented in Table II, 16 years being used as the chronological age of those over 16 in its calculation.



TABLE II. RETARDATION IN 311 DELINQUENT GIRLS.

<i>Retardation</i>	<i>Cases</i>	<i>Per cent</i>
Plus 3.0 years . . . . .	2	0.6
Plus 2.0—2.9 years . . . . .	21	6.8
Plus 1.0—1.9 years . . . . .	8	2.6
Plus 0.0—0.9 years . . . . .	20	6.4
Minus 0.1—0.9 years . . . . .	28	9.0
Minus 1.0—1.9 years . . . . .	35	11.3
Minus 2.0—2.9 years . . . . .	52	16.7
Minus 3.0—3.9 years . . . . .	49	15.8
Minus 4.0—4.9 years . . . . .	54	17.4
Minus 5.0—5.9 years . . . . .	24	7.7
Minus 6.0—6.9 years . . . . .	13	4.2
Minus 7.0—7.9 years . . . . .	4	1.3
Minus 8.0—8.9 years . . . . .	1	0.3

The mean retardation is 2.5 years. 63.5 per cent of the girls are retarded two or more years, 30.5 per cent four or more years and 6.2 per cent six or more years.

In Table III the distribution of the intelligence quotients is presented.

TABLE III. DISTRIBUTION OF INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENTS,  
311 DELINQUENT GIRLS.

<i>I. Q.</i>	<i>Cases</i>	<i>Per cent</i>	<i>Classification</i>	<i>Per cent</i>
41—50 . . . . .	1	0.3	Defective . . . . .	20.9
51—60 . . . . .	13	4.2		
61—70 . . . . .	51	16.4		
71—80 . . . . .	75	24.2	Borderline . . . . .	24.2
81—90 . . . . .	76	24.5	Dull . . . . .	24.5
91—100 . . . . .	48	15.5	Normal . . . . .	22.9
101—110 . . . . .	23	7.4	Superior . . . . .	7.7
111—120 . . . . .	23	7.4		
121—130 . . . . .	1	0.3		

On the basis of this table approximately one out of every five girls coming to the institution is to be classed as a possible defective, one out of every four as a borderline case, one out of every four as dull, one out of every five as normal and only one out of every twelve as superior in mentality. These percentages may be compared with those given by Miner<sup>3</sup> in his table summarizing the frequency of tested deficiency among over nine thousand delinquents. Among the women and girl delinquents the percentage of deficiency obtained by various investigators (17 in all) ranges from 9 to 38 with a median value of 25. The doubtful classification ranges from 14 to 37 per cent with a median of 24 per cent. On the basis of the intelligence quotients in this study, 20.9 per cent would be presumably deficient and 24.2 per cent doubtful or borderline.

3. Miner, J. B.: *Deficiency and Delinquency*, p.159.

## II. GROUP EXAMINATIONS WITH ARMY TEST ALPHA

In order to check up on the ratings given earlier by the individual examinations, 197 of the girls were given Army Alpha Form 6. Following are the results tabulated according to the Army ratings, the percentages of 94,004 drafted men<sup>4</sup>, selected to be a fair sample of all drafted men, being included in the table as a basis of comparison. Since a large part of the work which has been done on sex differences with intelligence tests has shown only negligible differences between the sexes, the sample of 94,004 drafted men is probably not far from representative of the female as well as the male population.

TABLE IV. DISTRIBUTION OF RATINGS, ARMY ALPHA EXAMINATION, 197 DELINQUENT GIRLS.

Rating	Classification	Per Cent 197 Delinquent Girls	Per cent 94,004 Drafted Men
A	Very superior	0.5	4.1
B	Superior	3.0	8.0
C+	High average	14.7	15.2
C	Average	25.4	25.0
C-	Low average	26.9	23.8
D	Inferior	17.3	17.0
D-	Very inferior	12.2	7.1

In the Very Superior and Superior classes there is a much smaller percentage of delinquent girls than of the white draft and in the Very Inferior class a greater percentage. In the other classes the percentages are very similar. The proportion of intelligence defect in the 197 delinquent girls is much less than that revealed by the individual examinations, as expressed in terms of mental age, intelligence quotient, and retardation. In fact this group of 197 delinquent girls could almost be called a fair sample of the population. This is in line with Doll's contention<sup>5</sup> that we have been using a much too high average mental age for adults in calculating retardation and intelligence quotients.

## III. COMPARISON OF GROUP AND INDIVIDUAL EXAMINATION RESULTS.

For practical purposes in the institution, the group test scores were converted into mental age on the basis of the Table of Equivalent Scores in the Army Examiner's Guide<sup>6</sup>. As it early became

4. Yoakum and Yerkes: *Army Mental Tests*, p. 38.

5. Doll, E. A., *Jour. Applied Psych.* Vol. III, 1919, pp. 317-328.

6. Yoakum and Yerkes: *Army Mental Tests*, p. 133.



evident that the use of the Point Scale equivalents from this table would give entirely too high mental ages, the Stanford-Binet equivalents were used. A correlation coefficient and regression later obtained between mental age on the Point Scale and Alpha total score justified this procedure. This coefficient by the product moment method is .83 with a P. E. of .015. The regression which is "M. A. equals .067 Alpha score plus 9.32 yrs." gives a mean difference from the values obtained by using the Army conversion table Stanford-Binet equivalents of .29 yr.—the group test rating being the greater—a difference which is in part to be explained by the fact that in many cases the group examination was given several months after the individual examination. The mean difference between the Point Scale equivalents from the Army table converted into mental age and the equivalents on the basis of this regression would be 1.8 years, which had these equivalents been used, would have made the mental age for the group test much too high.

The relation between mental ages as obtained from the Point Scale and those obtained from the group test Alpha is shown in Table V in which the abscissas represent Point Scale mental age and the ordinates Alpha mental ages based on the Army conversion table.

TABLE V. DISTRIBUTION OF MENTAL AGES ON GROUP AND INDIVIDUAL EXAMINATION OF 195\* DELINQUENT GIRLS.

M. A.	Point Scale Mental Ages													
Alpha	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	f.	
19											1		1	
18													0	
17												3	3	
16							1		3	1	1	3	9	
15					1	1	2	5	4	4		2	19	
14					1	3	8	2	3	1			18	
13			1		12	5	6		2	3			29	
12				10	11	7	3	4	1	1			37	
11		2	2	12	15	6							37	
10			6	13	5		1						25	
9		4	4	5									13	
8	1	1	1		1								4	
f.	1	7	14	40	46	22	21	11	13	10	2	8	195	

The coefficient of this correlation is .86 with a P. E. of .013.

\*Two girls who took the group examination were found not to have had the individual examination.



A classification of the differences between the mental ages obtained by the two examinations is shown in Table VI.

TABLE VI. DIFFERENCES BETWEEN MENTAL AGES BASED ON GROUP TEST AND INDIVIDUAL TEST, 195 DELINQUENT GIRLS.

<i>Difference</i>	<i>Cases</i>	<i>Per cent</i>
0.0—0.9 years.....	53.....	27.2
1.0—1.9 years .....	86.....	44.1
2.0—2.9 years.....	40.....	20.5
3.0—3.9 years.....	13.....	6.7
A.0—4.9 years.....	3.....	1.5

Of the cases in which the difference is from 3.0 to 3.9 years mental age there are 8 in which the group test rating is lower and 5 in which the group test rating is higher than the Point Scale rating. Of the cases in which the difference is from 4.0 to 4.9 years there is 1 in which the group test rating is lower and 2 in which the group test rating is higher. These extreme cases justify the use of the double examination since a difference of 3.0 to 4.9 years in the mental age rating in 8.2 per cent of the cases vitiates a number of diagnostic findings.

There is no evidence whether or not the individual examination mental age is more accurate than that of the group examination. Some individuals evidently fail to do themselves justice on the individual examination and some on the group examination. In this institution there are 7 cases with a significantly higher mental age on the group examination and 9 cases with a significantly higher mental age on the individual examination. Except for the possibility of the detection of coaching, the individual examination is not necessarily more accurate than the group examination. And coaching is much more easily done for an individual than for a group examination.

It was thought that many of the discrepancies between the two examinations might occur above the 13 year mental age level (using the Point Scale as a basis) *i. e.* in that range of intelligence in which mental age ratings are least accurate. But on tabulation the percentages were found to be so like those given in Table VI that publication is hardly justified.

Intelligence quotients were calculated on the basis of the mental ages obtained from the group examination in the same way as from the individual examinations. The correlation coefficient between the group examination I. Q. and the individual examination I. Q. is .79 (P. E. .017) 195 cases. In Table VIII the differences between the I. Q.s of the two examinations are listed.

TABLE VIII. DIFFERENCES BETWEEN INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENTS BASED ON GROUP TEST AND INDIVIDUAL TEST, 195 CASES.

<i>Difference</i>	<i>Cases</i>	<i>Per cent</i>
0.0—4.9 pts.....	46.....	23.6
5.0—9.9 pts.....	76.....	39.0
10.0—14.9 pts.....	41.....	21.0
15.0—19.9 pts.....	17.....	8.7
20.0—24.9 pts.....	9.....	4.6
25.0—29.9 pts.....	5.....	2.6
30.0—34.9 pts.....	1.....	0.5

If a shift of 10 points in the I. Q.—a shift which may or may not involve a change in classification\*—is regarded as significant, 62.5 per cent of the cases are given practically the same I. Q. on both examinations and 37.4 per cent of the cases are not.

More important practically are the shifts in classification which are listed in Table IX.

TABLE IX. CHANGES IN CLASSIFICATION BASED ON INDIVIDUAL AND GROUP EXAMINATION I. Q.'S OF 195 DELINQUENT GIRLS.

No shift in classification.....	105 cases or 53.9%
Superior 3, Normal 31, Dull 23, Borderline 30, Defective 18.	
Shift of one classification.....	78 cases or 40%
Superior P. S. to Normal Alpha.....	9
Normal P. S. to Dull Alpha.....	13
Dull P. S. to Normal Alpha.....	14
Dull P. S. to Borderline Alpha.....	9
Borderline P. S. to Dull Alpha.....	10
Borderline P. S. to Defective Alpha....	9
Defective P. S. to Borderline Alpha....	14
Shift of two classifications.....	11 cases or 5.6%
Superior P. S. to Dull Alpha.....	1
Normal P. S. to Borderline Alpha....	2
Dull P. S. to Superior Alpha.....	1
Dull P. S. to Defective Alpha.....	2
Borderline P. S. to Normal Alpha....	5
Shift of three classifications.....	1 case or 0.5%
Defective P. S. to Normal Alpha....	1

Shifts of one classification are hardly to be regarded as significant.

\*The system of classification, based on the intelligence quotient is as follows:  
Below 70 Defective, 71-80 Borderline, 81-90 Dull, 91-110 Normal, and 111-130 Superior.



In 93.9 per cent of the cases there is either no shift in classification or a shift of just one classification, a percentage that indicates the practical agreement of the two methods of examination. In 5.6 per cent of the cases there are shifts of two classifications and in one case or 0.5 per cent a shift of three classifications.

A shift of two or more classifications in 6.1 per cent of the cases makes the second examination worth while from the standpoint of the individual diagnosis. In cases where the two results agree, the rating of the individual is made more certain, in cases where there is marked disagreement, the individual may be given the benefit of doubt or further studied in order to determine the cause of the discrepancy.

In an institution in which a survey has been completed by means of individual examinations, a group examination can be given with little added expense and a considerable increase in the reliability of the findings. Where no mental survey has been made, a group examination followed by individual examination of the low score cases eliminates the possibility of serious mis-rating. Even where such surveys have been made, much would be gained by a second group survey after the lapse of a year or two. Partlow and Haines<sup>7</sup> in their recent study furnish an excellent example of the application of group methods to the delinquents in the institutions of an entire state.

#### IV. RELATION OF GRADE LOCATION TO MENTAL AGE AND CHRONOLOGICAL AGE

A study was made of the relation between mental age, chronological age, and grade location in the institution school which consists of grades from the third to the eighth with a small ungraded class for those not able to handle third grade work. Owing to the fact that many of the girls were on parole and further that the study was made on grade location in the school for the year 1918-19, the last year before the use of tests as an aid in locating the girls, this and subsequent correlations were made on 150 cases for the individual examinations and 95 cases for the group examinations.

The correlation between grade location and mental age for 150 cases is .63 (P. E. .03.) Examination of the correlation plot shows that in the third grade the mental ages ranged from 8 to 12 years, in

7. Partlow and Haines, J. Applied Psych. Vol. III 1919, pp. 291-309.



the fourth grade from 8 to 15 years, in the fifth grade from 8 to 16, in the sixth grade from 8 to 18, in the seventh grade from 11 to 18 and in the eighth from 13 to 18. Thus in the upper grades (the seventh and eighth) all the girls with decidedly inferior mentality had been eliminated in the course of the school work. A number of the girls making good scores on the tests were found in the lower grades, partly because of the use of subjective criteria in making grade locations and partly because of emotional and volitional defects which interfered with school progress.

The correlation coefficients, zero order, of the relations between mental age, chronological age, and grade location follow:

	<i>Individual Test</i>	<i>Group Test</i>
	<i>150 Female</i>	<i>95 Female</i>
	<i>Delinquents</i>	<i>Delinquents</i>
Chronological age and mental age.....	35 (.05).....	36 (.06)
Mental age and school grade.....	63 (.04).....	67 (.04)
Chronological age and school grade.....	52 (.03).....	59 (.04)

Doll<sup>8</sup> reports a similar set of correlations\* in his comparison of the results of Goddard's<sup>9</sup> examination of 2,000 normal children with Hickman's<sup>10</sup> study of 229 male delinquents, both groups being examined with Binet scale. His coefficients, zero order, follow:

	<i>2,000 Normal</i>	<i>229 Male</i>
	<i>Children</i>	<i>Delinquents</i>
Chronological age and mental age	.805	.409
Chronological age and school grade	.840	.490
Mental age and school grade	.730	.730

All the coefficients are positive and high. In order to analyze the situation the partial coefficients were determined. They are listed in Table X.

8. E. A. Doll, Training School Bul., Vol. XI. 1914-15 pp. 165-168.

9. Goddard, H. H., Ped. Seminary, Vol. XVIII 1911, pp. 232-259

10. Hickman, H. B., Training School Bul., Vol. XI, 1914-15, pp. 159-164.

\* A search of the literature failed to reveal other reports in which all three coefficients are published. In both Goddard's study and Doll's study, the data are presented very completely.

TABLE X. PARTIAL COEFFICIENTS, MENTAL AGE, GRADE LOCATION, AND CHRONOLOGICAL AGE.

	2,000 normal* children	229 male* delinquents	150 female* delinquents	95 female* delinquents
Chronological age & mental age (grade constant) . . .	.51	.08	.03	— .06
Chronological age & school grade (M. A. constant) . .	.62	.31	.41	.51
Mental age & school grade (Chronological age constant) . . . . .	.18	.67	.56	.61

There is apparently a close relationship between chronological age and mental age and between chronological age and school grade in normal children. But there is little relation between mental age and grade location. Due however to the close relationship between chronological age and mental age, a relationship between mental age and school grade is apparent when the raw correlations are obtained. Chronological age then seems to be the most important factor in determining school progress among normal children.

In institutions for delinquents a different situation holds. From both investigations it appears that there is practically no relationship between chronological age and mental age, some relation between chronological age and school grade, and a close relationship between mental age and school grade. Evidently delinquents are located in grades primarily because of their mental age as determined by proximate methods not involving the use of tests. The regression equations with grade location as the dependent variable bring out the state of affairs nicely. They are as follows:

*For normal children (Goddard's results)*

School grade equals .543 chronological age plus .151 mental age.

*For male delinquents (Hickman's results)*

School grade equals .204 chronological age plus .782 mental age.

*For female delinquents (C. I. S. results)*

a. Based on the individual examination of 150 cases:

School grade equals .250 chronological age plus .276 mental age.

b. Based on the group examination of 95 cases:

School grade equals .356 chronological age plus .323 mental age.

\*It is recognized that these sets of partial coefficients obtained on groups of different constitution, central tendency, and dispersion with different scales are not strictly comparable. But there is no reason to doubt their approximate validity since the findings are in accord with what was to be expected on the basis of other investigations.

Mental age is then weighted equal to chronological age in determining the location of delinquent girls in this institutional school system and almost four times chronological age in determining the location of delinquent boys in the school system of another institution. Among normal children chronological age is weighted three and one-half times mental age in determining grade location.

The institution school may be regarded as a selective agency which functions more or less well in placing individuals of a certain stage of mental development in a particular grade. In the process the child that is old chronologically and young mentally is apt to be placed in a grade higher than that in which it belongs, while the child that is young chronologically and old mentally is apt to be placed lower than it belongs. The place of tests in the educational scheme, whether it be the public school or the institution, apart from their utility for diagnostic purposes is to further the process of selection for grade location by mental development and to hinder or prevent the placing of a child out of its mental class simply because of chronological age. Emotional and volitional traits must however be considered. In the public school system misplacements are not so apt to occur as in the institution, because of the close relationship between mental and chronological age among unselected children.

In this particular institution the test scores were found of maximum usefulness in solving this problem. Girls who rated low on the tests and who had done poorly in their school work were shifted to training courses involving manual and domestic work, while those with high ratings were continued in the regular school courses. Eliminating the girls with deficient mentality from the regular school system resulted in much better discipline and progress on the part of those remaining and enabled the officers of the institution to better handle the training and discipline of those thus separated because of deficiency.

#### SUMMARY

1. Three hundred and eleven female delinquents were examined with the Yerkes-Bridges Point Scale and one hundred and ninety seven with Army Test Alpha.

2. Approximately one-fifth of the delinquents were found to rate as defectives, one-fourth as borderline cases, one-fourth as dull, one-fifth as normal, and one-twelfth as superior, on the basis of the individual examinations.



3. On the Alpha examination the distribution of the 197 delinquents approximates that of 94,004 drafted men selected as a sample of all drafted men. The difference in the distributions lies in the smaller percentage of the delinquent girls in the Very Superior and Superior classes and a larger percentage in the Very Inferior class, the other class percentages being much the same.

4. A comparison of the mental ages and I. Q.s obtained from the group examination with those of the individual examination shows great similarity, the coefficient of correlation being .86 between the mental ages. Significant shifts in classification from one examination to another occur in 6.1 per cent of the cases.

5. Grade location in the institution school as analyzed by partial correlations was found to be determined to a considerable degree by mental age and to a slight degree by chronological age, in contrast to the public schools in which the opposite is the case.

6. The place of the mental tests in the institution school system in addition to their diagnostic value, is to further grade location on the basis of mental age and to prevent selection on the basis of chronological age alone. Volitional and emotional traits must, however, be taken into consideration.

## THE FUTURE OF CLINICAL PSYCHOLOGY

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Clinical psychology has reached such a point of development that it must be definitely differentiated from the other branches of applied psychology which are related to it and which make use of clinical procedures in part. Clinical psychology is not educational psychology or educational tests; neither is it industrial psychology or vocational psychology. All of these branches of applied psychology make use, to a greater or lesser degree, of the methods and procedures developed first by clinical psychology, but in their aim, subject matter and method of approach they differ radically.

Clinical psychology is an outgrowth of a field which was originally thought of as lying entirely within the medical province. Psychologists developed and standardized procedures for the detection and diagnosis of mental inferiority and intelligence lack. Previous to the work of Binet such diagnosis was an incident in the work of the psychiatrists who were devoting most of their time to the study of the actual insanities. Needless to say the methods and technique they used when diagnosing feeble-mindedness were also largely incidental.

The value of clinical psychology, in so far as it has dealt with the diagnosis of feeble-mindedness and intelligence inferiority, lies in the elaboration of technique and the wholesale standardization of criteria employed in diagnosis. Today such standardized tests have practically eliminated the personal equation from the measurement of intelligence inferiority and superiority. It is the psychiatrist, retaining his confidence in his own individual methods and devaluating norms, who is content with a superficial study of the child before rendering a diagnosis of "feeble-minded" "inferior", or the opposite diagnosis which we meet so frequently in the probate courts,— "Nothing wrong with him".

If we go back to the beginning of Binet's work it has been thirty years since clinical psychology began to evidence itself. However, it is only fifteen years since the first group of standardized tests were evolved by the same master-mind. It is only ten years since the translation of Binet's work into the English tongue and its first usage on a large group of American children.

Psychologists working in the field of clinical diagnosis need not be discouraged over the progress their branch of psychology has made in that time. If I were able it would give me great pleasure to depict the beginning of clinical psychology in this country as I saw it in the laboratory of the Training School at Vineland in 1910. One little pamphlet on the Binet tests had been published in English at that time. One summer school class had been instructed in the use of the year scale, mimeograph copies being used for part of the work. The children of the Training School had all been examined once by the scale. In the fall of 1910 the public school children of Vineland, nearly 2000 in number, were given the whole scale in fear and trembling and with the greatest speed possible for no one knew how much parents might object to having their children tested. The laboratory helpers were enthusiastic over the method and when the day's mail brought two or three requests for information about the tests everyone felt that the good work was growing rapidly. The helpers in the laboratory made all of the test material demanded by others outside the institution who wished to try the method and at that the work was far from onerous.

Today even the popular magazines feel it necessary to hash over in impressive fashion, fully illustrated, much of the detail of the so-called mental tests. Almost every large city in the country has its psychological clinic, managed by the educational system or by some other social service institution. Here problem children may be examined and advice and help given. Summer classes at many colleges are filled with teachers and social workers who are there merely for the purpose of learning how to give mental tests.

The growth of the work during the last ten years may be divided into several stages. Of course there has been the constant development of refinement in method, which has often been given impetus by the criticism the tests have evoked. Statistical methods have contributed their share to the progress. By far the greatest growth in the generalization of the acceptance of tests has come through the Army usage of tests on thousands of thousands with the practical demonstration that tests plus statistics brought practical results. Group tests are much more widely used in every field of applied psychology that they were before this Army try-out.

More recently the early idea that the Binet series itself, in some form, is sufficient to diagnose a child's mentality has given way to Stern's demand for the well-rounded study of the individual. This



change of attitude is not universal, to be sure, but it is the attitude of the more reputable clinics at least. The perspective of the clinical psychologist has broadened. Many tests of all sorts have been evolved. Some have fallen into disuse while others have been widely accepted. All of them have helped emphasize the need for multiple fields of study of the individual. Gradually the clinical psychologist has learned to utilize the history of the individual's behavior and development as a check on or corroboration of his psychological findings.

The literature of today is encouraging in its terminology. There are many terms in evidence which are practically unstandardized and which emphasize factors considered important by the various writers. There is constant evidence of the fact that workers all through the country are seeing new problems in their work day by day. The tone of many reports is that of dissatisfaction with existing theories and formulations. All of this means but one thing—clinical psychology is not dead but alive and growing.

There is, of course, a great deal of criticism of intelligence tests. Much of this may be neglected for it comes from those who know too little about the actual problem to criticize competently. But there is criticism from within the group of clinical workers, notably from the psychologists working with the insane. The last year gives us several publications of this nature which may all be resolved into the statement that an insane person, to whom the test should be applicable, may be violently insane and yet have no intelligence defect; in other words, his I. Q. rating may be 100 or more. From the standpoint of our clinic in Columbus we do not feel that this criticism should cause any disturbance of thought or discomfort of mind to those using the tests. The criticism indicates a line of development which is needed and expected of clinical psychology. It is merely an obverse statement of the fact that we need something else besides an estimate of intelligence level before diagnosing individuals, be they infants, children, or adults. This need does not show itself so plainly when one is working with individuals who are actually insane. Delusions, hallucinations and aberrational behavior point to the classification of the subject without the need for intensive study. Most of the time is usually spent upon the classification of the psychosis from which the patient is suffering.

When one is working with children or adolescents who seldom run to such extremes of mental disturbance the need for very definite

methods of estimating mental disturbance is much more evident. We have come to believe in our clinic that the future of clinical psychology involves and even demands the standardization, from a psychological viewpoint, of all mental disturbances be they minor or major. Such a standardization can not be accomplished by the psychiatrists for their viewpoint is essentially different and their handling of the individual is consequently different. The psychological standardization of this field of mental disturbance or mental disease must be a standardization which parallels the Binet standardization of mental level.

Although our clinic does not pose as being able to equal the work of a Binet we have begun in it a first standardization of mental disturbances. In their undifferentiated forms, too mild to be called actual psychoses, present only part of the time in some individuals, entirely dependent upon illness in others, we have grouped all disturbances of thought and mentality under the term "psychopathy." When a psychopathy becomes so serious that the individual is mentally deranged we speak of him as having a psychosis. Psychopathy is, in other words, the presence of mental disease. The general term which parallels it when we are speaking of intelligence level is "sub-normality." Both terms admit of sub-classifications. Both include a wide variety of defects, from that which is barely noticeable to that which places the subnormal in an institution for the feeble-minded and the psychopath in a state hospital for the insane.

During the first fifteen months of work in our clinic no attempt was made to control the diagnosis of psychopathies in any fashion. In truth, we knew too little about psychopathy, as we have learned to know it in the last year, to make any generalizations or assumptions as to how the thing should be studied. Gradually, however, we found by keeping constant trace of the diagnoses used in the clinic that all of our workers were falling into the habit of using a two-fold terminology in diagnosing any case that was at all problematical. The diagnosis in the individual case almost always involved a statement of mental level and a statement of the other factors which we gradually grew to calling mental function. A year ago we generalized the usage of the two-fold diagnosis and now demand it on all cases. Our primary diagnosis is still the diagnosis of intelligence level. That is, the child may be diagnosed as feeble-minded or idiot, imbecile or moron level, or he may be precocious and score bright normal in level or he may be inferior normal or normal for his race or he may be designated as retarded with the real diagnosis deferred.



Such a diagnosis by no means explains a case, for no matter whether an individual is normal in mental level or feeble-minded it is quite possible for him to have a mental disease. The condition may be less pronounced and instead of being recognizable as mental disease may only be identified as a predisposition or diathesis which will provide the foundation for a real disturbance or mental function later in life. We have in such conditions not intelligence defect but something which is interfering with the full efficiency of that intelligence which the individual possesses. The amount of intelligence is not the determining factor but the way that amount responds to the demands the world makes upon it. If a feeble-minded person has a disturbance of mental function, that is if he is a feeble-minded psychopath, he may, if the amount of psychopathy is sufficient, suffer from a psychosis and be, in the parlance of the man of the street, "insane." If a normal person has the same degree of mental disturbance he, too, is insane, although the probabilities are that since he has more intelligence to be disturbed the mental disease will appear to be more serious. A superior normal adult may also have a disturbance of mental function which renders him psychopathic to the point of an actual psychosis, or "insanity." Any mental level, or level of intelligence is subject to its functional disturbances, mental disease or psychopathies. Whether these are identical or even similar for all mental levels it is too soon to say but they are probably different in intensity of manifestation at least. There may be a correlation between level and function, between intelligence and intelligence function but only painstaking research will reveal it. At present we can say that at least there is no relation which allows one to hypothecate the presence or absence of mental disease from a knowledge of the intelligence level of the individual.

It is undoubtedly true that many of the attempts to diagnose psychopathy which have been made by psychologists are not actually psychological diagnoses, but are clinical diagnoses, based upon the history of aberrant social reactions rather than upon detailed examinations. The psychological diagnosis of psychopathy must be a diagnosis based upon psychological tests alone. In other words it must be a qualitative analysis of test findings. As such it is not necessarily based upon tests which are entirely distinct from those we use to diagnose intelligence level, but it is partly a refinement of analysis of the findings which are made incidentally while we are



obtaining the mental age rating. Such a psychological diagnosis of psychopathy is not necessarily the clinical diagnosis on the case. It becomes a clinical diagnosis of psychopathy when it is compared with, checked with, modified or strengthened by the social record of the case. These two must be made to agree and explain each other before the final statement or clinical diagnosis is pronounced.

In our clinic we are using at present a tentative standardization of some of the points of psychopathy which reveal themselves in the course of a full psychological examination of a subject and although the method is far from satisfactory it has been an immense step over and above the individual estimates of psychopathy prevalent before this year. Our classification is by no means final. It is quite possible that some of the factors now weighted with significance will prove less so as our case data increase. It seems unwise, however, in view of the various demands for suggestions along this line, to withhold a statement of our work until we have reached a complete standardization. Most of the factors which we count as significant have been studied by workers elsewhere although usually with specialized or small groups of selected cases. Several of the criteria have been evolved in our own laboratory. The justification or disproof of the method will need use and years of work. At present we can say only that the method has tremendously facilitated our clinical work and that no child has been found with more than eighty per cent psychopathy who has not shown the presence of a definite psychosis after a few days of study.

At present we consider the following ten points in the diagnosis of psychopathy.

1. Range above basal year on Stanford-Binet. More than four years.
2. Distribution on Stanford-Binet.
3. Quality of individual test responses on the Stanford-Binet.
4. Kent-Rosanoff association test. More than 10 individual reactions.
5. Kent-Rosanoff association test. Quality of response.
6. Lack of balance on performance test. More than four years.
7. Orientation. Very poor or very good.
8. School work. Above or below actual grade expected of intelligence level.
9. Incoherence, ambiguity, circumstantiality in own story.
10. Behavior during examination.

These may need some explanation.

1. The range of tests on the Stanford-Binet is the number of years through which the child is able to do tests above his basal year. For instance, a child may have a basal year of 7 and have no credits above the 12th year except the design in the 18th year, yet his

range would be 18 minus 7 or 11 years. Almost all children have some range above their basal year but an inspection of about three thousand cases, as well as the reports of other writers, had led us to assume *more* than four years of scattering above the basal year as an indication of psychopathy.

2. The distribution on the Stanford-Binet may be significant aside from the range of distribution; that is, a child may fail on tests which definitely indicate instability or which definitely indicate mental defect. Thus the rote and immediate repetition of digits may not differentiate the feeble-minded from the normal child but it is apt to differentiate the psychopath from either feeble-minded or normal children who are not psychopathic. The psychopath is essentially poor in rote memory, in constructive and free association, etc., while he is good in reasoning and comprehension. The feeble-minded child probably does better in rote memory for digits but he fails on the comprehension tests.

3. The quality of the individual test response on the Stanford is also significant. The psychopath may give peculiar and unexpected individual reactions. He drives one to constant consultation of test norms because of the doubtful character of his responses. He is apt to fall into automatisms, use nonsense syllables in giving rhymes or the sixty words, etc. His report on matter read is peculiar and has extraneous interpolations. He is verbalistic or mono-syllabic. His reaction time may be accelerated or retarded or it may be normal. He does the unexpected thing and the unexpected as he presents it is peculiar, not clever or attractive.

4. If a child gives more than 10 individual reactions on the Kent-Rosanoff association test and is more than eight years old; or if he gives more than 45 of the most common reactions and is, in this latter instance, of normal level in intelligence, it may be taken as an indication of psychopathy.

5. When the analyzed Kent-Rosanoff association test is studied for quality, the test may be counted psychopathic in its indications if more than 10 reactions are found which are abnormal according to the Kent-Rosanoff definition of abnormality; or, if they give that many indications of perseveration, automatism, sound association, repetition of stimulus word, etc. (Separate study in preparation).

6. In the performance tests a difference of more than four years in the age norms for the various tests may be taken as an indication of instability and psychopathy but at least five or six well-standardized tests must be given.



7. The orientation test becomes significant if it is unusually poor when analyzed in the light of the child's mental age and past advantages; or if it is unusually good in a verbalistic, superficial fashion, or if it meets Franz' ideas of de-orientation.

8. If the school work of the child as indicated by his performance on actual school tests shows ability which is two or more years above what we would expect of his present mental level, or if it is similarly below, but the child is not potentially feeble-minded, the discrepancy may be taken as an indication of psychopathy.

9. The child's own story must always be evaluated in the light of his actual past experiences and also with a due consideration of his mental age and actual chronological age. If, despite, allowances for all these, it shows lack of coherence, forgetfulness, lack of plausibility, etc., it is open to suspicion as indicating psychopathy.

10. The child's behavior during the examination is another, although often less certain, way of obtaining an indication of stability or psychopathy. The factors to be evaluated are such as extreme lack of adaptation, extreme apathy or excitability, negativism, automatisms, etc.

After completing the examination of a case we have fallen into the habit of checking the findings for these ten points and evaluating the number of indications found, such as 6 out of 7 on a child too young mentally for the association test and who had never been to school. A child can not be evaluated on such a scale unless all of the tests applicable to one of his age and ability have been given.

From the usage of these ten points of analysis we have already evolved several other points which will probably prove valuable additions to the list later on but they have not been tried out sufficiently to date. Whether any one of these criteria will stand the test of prolonged clinic usage we do not know but we feel sure that the only way we can evaluate a definite and standardized qualitative analysis of intelligence is through the use of a tentative scale from which we may deviate and the fallacies of which will indicate the amount of progress in our new work.

In so far as a definition of psychopathy itself is involved, our experience with this standardization has given us the following concept: *For any mental level the person with normal mental function is the one who is most efficient.*

*Differentiation from feeble-mindedness.* The feeble-minded or backward child is the child who has less intelligence than the nor-



mal child of the same chronological age. His mind has never developed to the level it should. He has stayed younger and more immature and does less quantitatively on the tests than he should. The psychopath may have developed to the normal level or he may be a precocious child or he may be a feeble-minded child. It is not the quantity of intelligence which determines his psychopathy but it is the pathological or abnormal way in which that amount of mind he has *works*. The feeble-minded child may be called a child who has a small amount of money in his mental purse but his way of spending it may be normal, or, in other words, he uses to good advantage that which he has. The psychopathic child may have any amount of money in his mental purse but his way of spending it is abnormal. That is, it is erratic and peculiar and full value is not received for the expenditure. The psychopathic child functions wrongly. His functioning does not bring about results which are valuable in just proportion to the effort and energy involved in them. The psychopathic child is qualitatively abnormal. He may be quantitatively normal or abnormal, that is, he may be feeble-minded, backward, dull, normal, superior normal.

*Behavior indications.* This wrong quality of functioning shows in the behavior of the psychopathic child. The major symptoms are similar in most of the cases although they may show very different phases. These children are frequently solitary. They do not get along with other children of the same mental level. If they are feeble-minded psychopaths they do not get along with the other feeble-minded children who are not psychopaths. The same is true of a psychopath of normal intelligence level among other normal children. Psychopaths are apt to prefer the company of adults, or, in deteriorative cases, of low grade imbeciles. Their games have a queer monotony which frequently makes even the family realize their peculiarity. They are especially apt to have strong likes and dislikes as regards food. Those of the lower grades are usually destructive with toys, clothing and sometimes with anything they grasp. They are apt to have violent tempers and have often been recognized as "different from the time they were born." They may be moody. Most of them tend to be more easily depressed than to be pleasurably excited although the "exalted" case is sometimes met with. These children meet Hall's description of individuals living at the ambivalent extremes of the emotional plane without enough emotional resiliency to swing back into a normal mood.

Psychopaths are not usually fond of other children or of pets and they may be quite cruel. They are apt to have queer hobbies. They are apt to sleep poorly and often suffer from night terrors.

*School indications.* They may get along fairly well in school until they reach third or fourth grade or even until they reach high-school, although other cases of early psychopathy are often inferior from the very beginning of school days. Relatively the psychopath is most apt to be poor in geography and spelling. These children are usually difficult to handle in the regular grade. Every schoolroom has one or more of them. They are the children on whom the teacher cannot rely and concerning whose misbehavior she is always concerned for they are different and rules and punishments never seem to fit.

*Laboratory findings.* On the psychological tests these children are relatively poorer in rote memory for digits, in discrimination of lifted weights, in copying the design, in free association and in constructive association. They are apt to be verbalists and have a good usage of language which is superficial. They seem to be always giving answers which at first appear creditable but which upon analysis prove to be relevant but alongside the point, for they miss the vital element of the situation. The usual mental age obtained is the result of a low basal year supplemented by questions gaining credit through a wide range of higher years. The performance tests of these children frequently indicate a far lower level than their actual mental age. The opposite of this is more frequently true with feeble-minded children. The psychopath is most apt to fail on the Goddard adaptation board and on the Healy first pictorial completion board. They do spectacular work on the Porteus but one cannot tell which extreme they will score. They are frequently poorly oriented but are much better in general information than feeble-minded children. A most marked indication of their abnormality is that found on the Kent-Rosanoff association test on which they give a curve with a high frequency of individual reactions. The mental age changes rapidly in some cases. In one boy recently studied we found a change of 18 months in level in a month and it was not due to chance learning. In other cases re-examination shows them at the same level but the mental age is achieved by the successes on tests previously failed on and earlier successes have become failures.

*General comments.* Compared with other children of the same mental level, whether these are feeble-minded children or normals,



the psychopathic child is unreliable. He is very apt to lie fluently. He is apt to be a runaway. It is far harder to predict what a psychopath will do when put into a definite situation than it is to foretell the behavior of even an unintelligent but normal-functioning child.

As we see it from daily practice in our clinic the work on mental function is an essential for the clinic which wishes to grow and meet the needs of its community. Much of so-called feeble-mindedness is merely inferiority of level due to poor functioning of an organism which has had normal endowment. Such cases are hopeful. Another group of so-called feeble-minded individuals is undoubtedly a group of deteriorates whose psychoses have reached the point of imbecilic quiescence. Much inferiority is undoubtedly the inferiority of instability of function and not intelligence lack. In all of these cases the ascertainment of functional disturbance or normality is becoming more and more the keystone to reliability in the disposition which must be made of each case. The psychopathic child and the psychopathic adult give new evidence every day of the fact that they are more in need of institutional care than their fellow-men of the same mental level who are normal in function. Whether or not the state hospitals for the insane recruit their patients from the ranks of the normal or the psychopathic child it is too soon to say but all data point to the probability that the psychopathic child is the one who in adult life develops the extreme indications of psychopathy. However, psychopathy is harder to detect than the psychoses and only the continued study of psychopathy with the continued observation of normal-functioning and psychopathic children will give us definite information on this point, *but*, it is possible that one generation of caring for the psychopathic child would prevent a large part of the insanity of the next generation. Only a complete and delicate standardization of psychopathy from the psychological standpoint will give us the basis for such study and enable us to verify any such hypothesis.



## THE "WILL-PROFILE" OF DELINQUENT BOYS

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This study comprises the results of tests of 100 delinquent boys at Whittier State School, Whittier, California, made with the will-profile scale. Comparisons with groups examined by the author of the scale as well as correlations of the test scores with other factors are included. It has not been possible to draw any general conclusions, but the results reveal a number of interesting features.

*Description of the tests.* In February, 1919, Dr. June E. Downey of the University of Wyoming published *The Will-Profile*, "a tentative scale, for measuring a number of character traits, chiefly volitional traits"<sup>1</sup>. The scale is composed of twelve tests, each test scored on a ten percentile basis, thus giving a maximum total score of 120. Of the twelve tests, eight utilize the handwriting of the reagent under various time and space limitations. The series includes speeded, retarded, diguised, blocked and automatic handwriting. To quote Dr. Downey:

It may be taken for granted that will-functions must be tested largely through some form of motor reactions. . . . The motor activity required for the present purposes should be a common one and one which leaves behind it a permanent record.

Three tests involve the writing of the reagent's name and six the writing of the phrase *United States of America*. Reaction time constitutes the chief basis for scoring in nearly all cases. The time score in three tests is based upon the reagent's relative speed or relative inertia, while that in the other tests is based upon norms established by Dr. Downey. In addition to the writing activity, Dr. Downey has included tests involving choice and imitation. The tests utilized include: speed of movement, freedom from inertia, flexibility, speed of decision, motor impulsion, assurance, resistance to opposition, motor inhibition, interest in or care for detail, coordination of impulses, volitional perseverance, and revision, or finality of judgment.

The total score is displayed by means of a profile. The traits tested are so grouped that a relatively high score in the first four suggest a "quick, adaptable, fluidic type of person"; in the second four, an "aggressive, wilful" type; and in the third four, a "slow, accurate and tenacious" type.

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1. *The Will-Profile*. Dept. of Psychol. Bul. No. 3, Univ. of Wyo., 1919.

*Summary of Dr. Downey's findings.* Dr. Downey<sup>2</sup> found the coefficient of correlation between the rating in the Thorndike intelligence examinations for high school graduates<sup>3</sup> and that for the will-profile in the cases of 34 college freshman to be .47. The correlation of the will-profile scores with the results of the Army Alpha test in a more uniform group than the above was about .20. It was also found that the three groups of character traits, taken separately, gave the following coefficients of correlation with the Thorndike intelligence examination in the above 34 cases: the first four tests, .50; the second four, .30; the last four, .07. Dr. Downey suggests that this indicates that the "quick, adaptable, fluidic type" of person makes the best showing in the Thorndike examination and the "slow, deliberate, pondering type" the poorest. College success did not accompany high will-profile scores in all cases. One case rated as able to do good academic work by the Thorndike examination, gave unsatisfactory results. The will-profile score in this case was 53, "a score low enough to suggest an explanation for failure in college work", to quote Dr. Downey who summarizes her findings in these 34 cases as follows:

Students with a high intelligence rating but with a low volitional score usually succeed academically although not to a degree warranted by their intelligence and with certain combinations of traits, may fail. Students with a low will-score, who are rated in either group III or IV (Thorndike's grouping) for intelligence, fail to make good as students. Students of inferior intelligence but strong volitional qualities may succeed in maintaining a passing grade.

In checking up the will-profile scores against estimates made by the reagent's college associates, Dr. Downey asked her judges to identify the profile according to a submitted list. "Correct identification of profiles ran from zero to five, or from total failure to identify any profile (one reagent) to forty-one per cent of successful identifications (two reagents). The per cent of successes for the total of one hundred forty-four judgments (twelve judgments by each of twelve reagents) was twenty-two per cent, where chance success would be less than one per cent"<sup>4</sup>.

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2. Dr. Downey very kindly gave permission to reprint the test blanks and has assisted in the making of this study in other ways.

3. Downey, June E. *Rating for Intelligence and for Will-Temperament*. School and Society, XII-301, p. .293.

4. Downey, June E. *Some Volitional Patterns Revealed by the Will-Profile*. Jour. Exper. Psychol. III-4, p. 286.



The median score of a group of 21 high school freshmen was found to be 43. The correlation between intelligence quotients and school grades was .84; between will-profile scores and grades, .72<sup>5</sup>.

For superior adults, upperclass students and graduate students, Dr. Downey<sup>6</sup> gives the following distribution of will-profile scores; upper 25 per cent, score of 75-100; middle 50 per cent, score of 61-74; lower 25 per cent, score of 43-60.

#### RESULTS OF TESTS OF 100 DELINQUENT BOYS

*Nature of the group.* The will-profile scale was given by the writer to an unselected group of 100 Whittier State School boys<sup>7</sup>. Chronological ages range from 13 to 19 years. The median age is approximately 16.5 years. The average age for the entire school is 15 years. The median intelligence quotient for the group is .83,

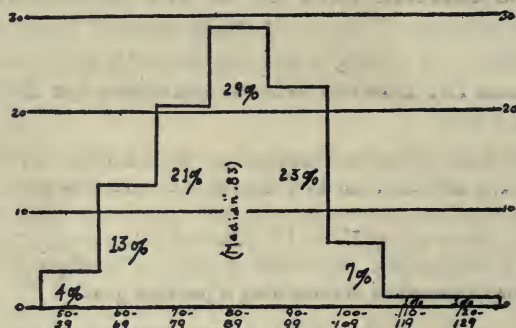


Fig. 1. Distribution of intelligence quotients.

exactly the same as for the entire School. Distribution of the boys tested by social-intelligence groups (Fig. 2) shows 32 per cent in the dull-normal classification while the psychological laboratory reports the dull-normal group of the entire School to be 23.9 per cent. The group tested was composed of 85 per cent white, 8 per cent colored, 6 per cent Mexican, 1 per cent Chinese. The distribution for the School is 77 per cent white, 10 per cent colored, 12 per cent Mexican, and 1 per cent Chinese.

5. Downey, June E. *The Adolescent Will-Profile*. Jour. Educ. Psychol. XI-3, pp. 161-163.

6. Downey, June E. Correspondence with the writer.

7. The writer is deeply indebted to Dr. J. Harold Williams, Miss Julia Mathews, Mr. Karl M. Cowdery, and Mr. Willis W. Clark for advice and assistance in the preparation of this study.



*Procedure.* All tests were made and scored by the writer. An examiner's blank for the recording of test results insured accuracy. The psychological laboratory at Whittier State School was used in all cases. The reagent was seated opposite the examiner at a wide flat top desk which insured ample space and perfect ease for the performance of the tests. The same pen was used in all cases. The time in all scores was taken with a stop-watch. The tests were free from

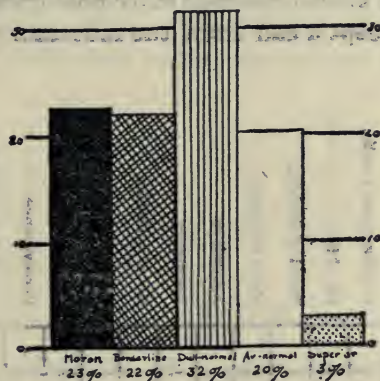


Fig. 2. Distribution of social-intelligence groups.

interruptions except in a very few cases, in which the interruption in no way interfered with the examination. In nearly all cases the reagent was personally acquainted with the examiner. Rapport was readily established and the test was usually attacked with inter-

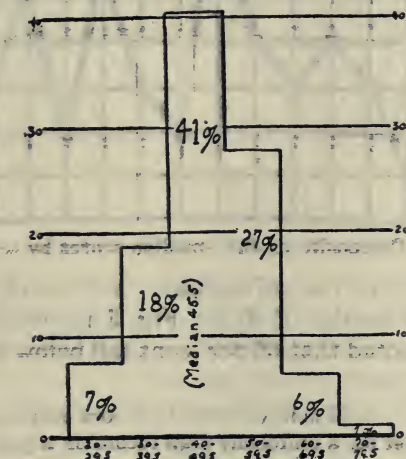


Fig. 3. Distribution of will-profile scores.

est and often with enthusiasm. In the entire group of 100 boys there was but one instance of adverse attitude, and this was soon overcome. No differences were noted between the reactions of those reagents already acquainted with the examiner and those not. Without doubt the elements of reluctance and self-consciousness are reduced to a minimum in the laboratory in which these tests were made since the boys are accustomed to psychological tests, interviews and the like and accept a call from the laboratory quite as a matter of course.

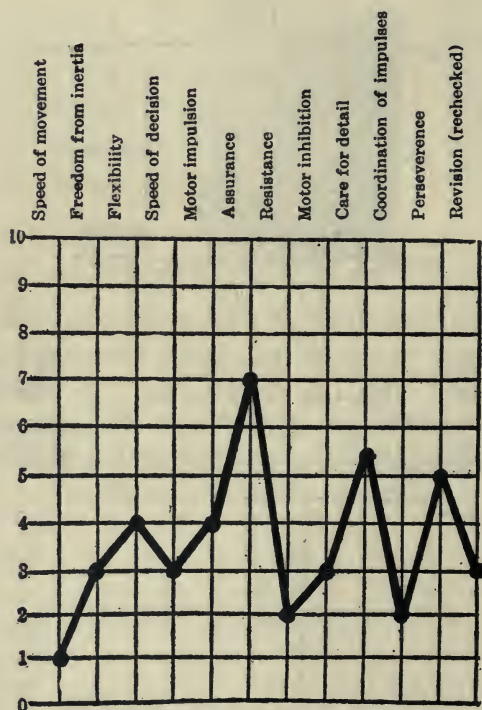


Fig. 4. Composite profile—median scores by tests.

*Data.* The results of the will-profile tests give scores ranging from 22 to 75 with a median of 45.5. Fig. 3 shows the distribution of scores. It will be noted that 66 per cent fall below 50. Dr. Downey says in this connection:<sup>8</sup>

A point score below 50 would indicate either a record consistently low or one of great inequality; one over 60, a uniformly high record or a peaked one; a score of 70 suggests at once high scoring throughout.

<sup>8</sup> Dept. of Psychol. Bul. No. 3. Univ. of Wyo., 1919, p. 37.

Thus only 7 per cent of the scores of this group of delinquent boys suggest a high record according to the norms for adults.

A composite profile made up of the median score for all of the 12 tests is given in Fig. 4. The most interesting feature here is the relatively high score in "assurance" and the relatively low score in "resistance". The coefficient of correlation between these two factors is practically zero (.007) for the 100 tests. This is in sharp contrast to Dr. Downey's findings among adults where there was a high correlation<sup>9</sup>. This difference is perhaps one of the significant fea-

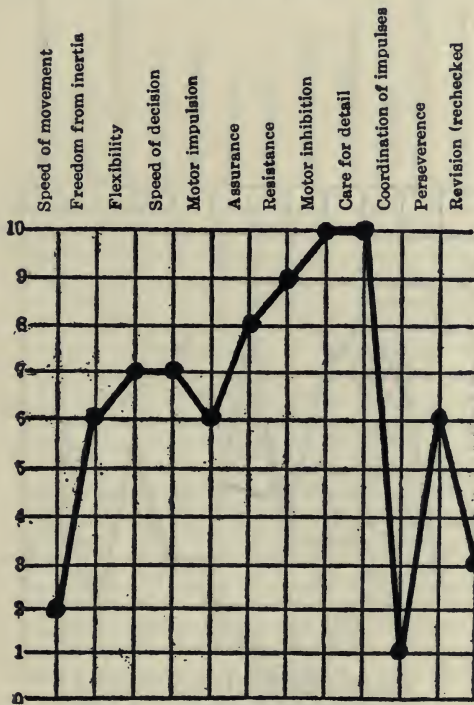


Fig. 5. Profile of highest score.

tures in comparing the test results of an adult group and of a juvenile delinquent group. The emphasis, in the composite profile, is thrown upon the middle third of the tests and suggests relatively frequent occurrence of the "wilful, aggressive" traits. The relatively high score in the "slow, accurate and tenacious" traits is somewhat surprising. That the least prominent of the three groups is that

9. Jour. Exper. Psychol. III-4, p. 296.



characteristic of quick, adaptable persons accords with our conception of the unsocial individual and his inability to successfully adjust himself in matters of social contact.

*Case 1.* The profile of the highest score obtained is reproduced in Fig. 5. This reagent rates as dull-normal intellectually. Two years prior to the test he was diagnosed as mildly insane. At the time of the test the psychosis had practically disappeared but he continued to be peculiar.

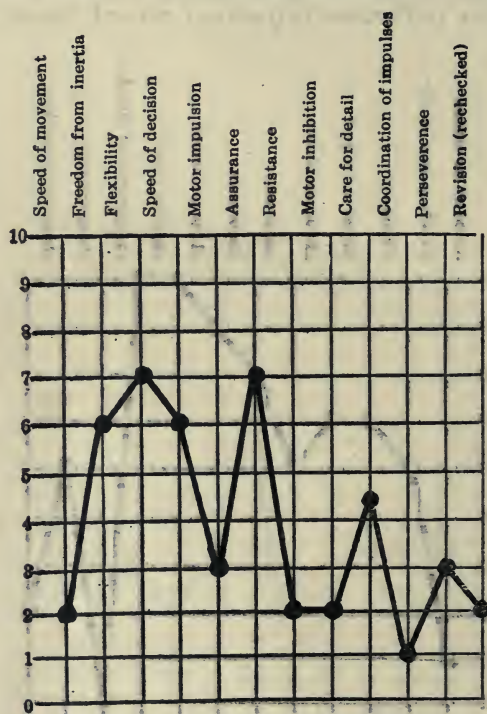


Fig. 6. Profile of median score.

*Case 2.* Of the four profiles which fall at the median score (45.5) the one given in Fig. 6 is perhaps the most characteristic of the entire group<sup>10</sup>. This boy has an I.Q. of 1.09 at the age of 15 years 8 months. Is a freshman in high school. Is mild with little forcefulness. Fails to utilize his full intellectual capabilities. Is not at all aggressive and does not ordinarily receive credit for the amount of intelligence

<sup>10.</sup> With the exception of Case 1 all cases discussed separately had been carefully studied by the writer in connection with other work before the test was given.

he possesses. Very amenable to supervision and suggestion. Not at all obstinate. The profile shows an individual of comparatively high "flexibility" and "assurance" but low "motor impulsion," "resistance" and "motor inhibition."

Case 3. In Fig. 7 the profile with the lowest score (22) is reproduced. This boy rates as a low-grade moron, having an I. Q. of .56. He has been tried at numerous occupations during his two years in Whittier State School and has not been a success at anything. He

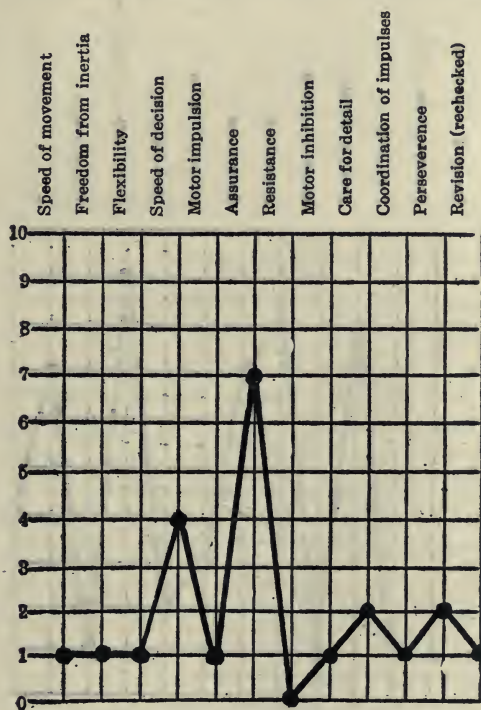


Fig. 7. Profile of lowest score.

is forgetful with no ability to concentrate upon the task at hand and has practically no resistance. He has, however, a degree of self-confidence quite out of proportion to his ability. His mental age of 9 years does not entirely account for his failure since the ordinary nine-year-old boy shows greater capacity for usefulness than does this boy. The will-profile indicates relatively high "assurance," but

marked inferiority of all other traits, especially "resistance." This profile is remarkably characteristic of the reagent.

*Case 4.* Fig. 8 shows one of the most irregular or peaked profiles in the entire group. This reagent has superior intelligence. Is adaptable and quick to learn by merely watching others. Has considerable persistence with a surprisingly strong intellectual control. Is active and not at all lazy, but gives an impression of greater "drive" than close study reveals. Has shown accuracy and care for

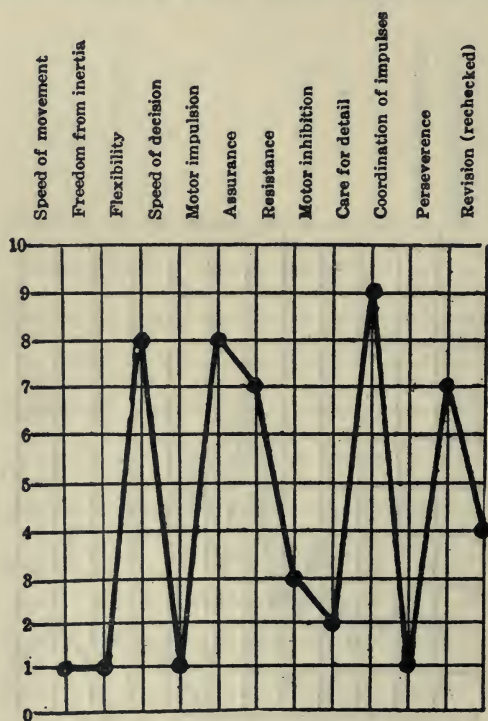


Fig. 8. One of the most irregular profiles.

detail. This last trait is not at first noticed by the casual or even more careful observer as it is overshadowed by the quick, adaptable traits. Despite several months of careful study of this boy, the writer had failed to properly estimate the proportion of the accurate, tenacious traits as revealed by the profile. Four months of subsequent study verified this emphasis. The boy promises satisfactory utilization of his intellectual capabilities and the social outlook is good.



*Case 5.* In sharp contrast to the foregoing is Case 5. This boy, a negro, has an I.Q. of 1.27, the highest of the entire group, but apparently his superior intelligence does not contribute much toward success. He is very lazy with an inertia which is always an obstacle to any accomplishment. Despite his knowledge that his conduct is poor, he seems to utterly lack the necessary stamina to mend his ways. Has no initiative whatever and invariably yields to whatever offers itself in the way of diversion. Strongly impresses one with his extreme lassitude, both mental and physical. The I.Q. in this case does not give the cause of maladjustment. The will-profile gives a score of 34.5, a score definitely in the lower third of scores for this group. The profile shows a high score in "freedom from inertia". This indicates that the reagent's normal reactions are close to his maximum freedom from load. This is the only trait registering a high score. "Flexibility" and "resistance" are at zero. The profile is four-peaked with little emphasis on any of the three groups of traits.

*Cases 6 and 7.* These offer interesting contrasts. Both classify in the social intelligence group of borderline with I. Q. s of .74 and .75, mental ages of 12 years and test scores of 46 and 40. Case 6, despite very poor home conditions and lack of parental care, has made a splendid record during his two years at Whittier State School. Has shown a definite proficiency in his trade (baker), has rarely been the cause of even minor discipline and has attended strictly to business. He is calm, persistent and careful. His profile (score 46) shows a slow, accurate and tenacious individual with relatively high "freedom from load," "motor impulsion" and "perseverance," but low "motor inhibition." "Freedom from load," "motor impulsion" and "perseverance" each score 7 points. "Resistance" is zero. Case 7 lacks poise and self control. He makes a good first impression, but this breaks down after a short acquaintance. Has been persistently troublesome and during his two years in Whittier State School has shown a tendency toward retrogression in conduct response. Will probably never be a success socially. His profile indicates flexible, ready reactions, but no "motor inhibition" and "perseverance." "Assurance" scores high with the sharp drop at "resistance."

Correlations have been made between the test scores and independent estimates, intelligence, age, temperament and conduct. Since the will-profile scale was described by its author as a "tentative scale for measuring a number of character traits, chiefly volitional traits," an effort has been made to check up the test results against estimates of the reagent's volitional traits. To quote Dr. Downey:

Quite possibly, as has been stated by Thorndike and others, there exists a high correlation between character and intelligence, yet in the narrow range within which one works, say in a college community, the achievement which one may expect from a student of average or superior intelligence, is determined largely by such traits as persistence, energy, aggressiveness and self-confidence.

In the application of this thought to a group of juveniles, the age factor must be borne in mind. The blank shown in Fig. 9 was used in securing estimates on each of the 100 boys tested with the will-profile scale. Each of the five items is scored by 1 to 5, making a maximum total score of 25. For each boy there were selected three persons in the school who were best qualified to judge him<sup>12</sup>. These usually included his supervisor, his trade instructor and his school teacher. These persons are quite practiced in the making of similar

Name . . . . .	Officer . . . . .
1. <u>Self-control</u> - the ability to keep oneself in hand.	
very inferior	inferior      average      superior      very superior
2. <u>Self-confidence</u> - reasonable belief in one's ability with proper self-esteem.	
very inferior	inferior      average      superior      very superior
3. <u>Power of concentration</u> - ability to hold the mind to the subject in hand.	
very inferior	inferior      average      superior      very superior
4. <u>Persistence</u> - determination and a going ahead in the face of difficulty; holding to a decision in the face of other suggestions.	
very inferior	inferior      average      superior      very superior
5. <u>Initiative in everyday affairs</u> - going ahead on one's own responsibility; thinking out and doing new things.	
very inferior	inferior      average      superior      very superior

Fig. 9. Facsimile of blank used in making estimates of volitional traits.

estimates. They have had numerous occasions to fill out blanks dealing with various phases of the boy's make-up and conduct and it seems fair to assume that these estimates are as accurate as could be practicably obtained in an institution. Each estimate was made entirely independent of the test. A few estimates on the same boy varied as much as 7 or 8 points. On most of them, however, there was a variation of only 3 to 5 points so that the rating for each boy secured from the average of the three estimates expresses quite accurately the opinion of all three judges. The rating of volitional traits ranged from 8 to 22. A correlation of .29 was found between

12. This part of the study was made possible through the generous cooperation of supervisors, instructors, and teachers at Whittier State School.



the rating and and test score<sup>13</sup>. According to Rugg<sup>14</sup>, this is a "present but low" correlation. The correlation between the score on Test VI-2 (perseverance) and the rating on item 4 (persistence) is .34, which Rugg also interprets as "present but low." It is interesting to note in this connection that Terman<sup>15</sup> found the correlation between teacher's estimates of intelligence (on a scale of 5 points) and the I. Q. to be .48.

Correlation with intelligence brought out some interesting tendencies. The correlation between the I. Q. and will-profile score in our cases is .38, while that between the mental age and test score is .48. This latter, according to Rugg's interpretation, is "markedly present". The mental ages range from 8 years 8 months to 18 years 5 months. Dr. Downey suggests<sup>16</sup> that "mental age, as indicative of mental maturity, and mental age, as indicative of degree of intelligence", need to be differentiated in this connection. Bearing in mind Dr. Downey's findings regarding the correlation between intelligence and the first, second and third groups of traits, the following correlations were found in our group: first third (quick, adaptable type of person) .22; second third (wilful, aggressive type) .09; last third (slow, accurate and tenacious type) .20. In making the correlation with the I. Q. and the first third, Test I is included since the correlation without it (.23) differs by only one point.

The correlation between the test score and chronological age is .15. For this group of boys, probably the correlation of .43 with mental age is more significant since this approximates the results one might expect from a group wherein the median I. Q. fell within the average-normal group. Furthermore, the comparatively narrow range of ages from 13 to 19 makes any correlation with age less valuable. Dr. Downey, in announcing the scale, found that "a crude distribution by five-year intervals, beginning at seventeen years, indicates the presence of an age-factor".

The Whittier Scale for Grading Temperament (not yet published) distributes reagents into groups according to degree of emotional sta-

13. Test I (Speed of decision) presented so large a vocabulary difficulty, that it failed, in most cases, to measure speed of decision. For this reason it was thrown out in making the above correlation. The correlation between the rating and the score including Test I is .17.

14. Rugg, H. O. *Statistical Methods Applied to Education*, p. 256.

15. Terman, Lewis M. *The Measurement of Intelligence*, p. 75.

16. Jour. Educ. Psychol. XI-3, p. 164.



bility, ranging from pathological depression to pathological excitation, and including the intermediate normal degrees of calmness and activity. The correlation between this scale and the will-profile is .11 which is negligible, suggesting little or no relation between temperament and will power.

In this connection Dr. Downey says<sup>17</sup>;

If the tests reveal emotional predispositions they do so indirectly in connection with a specific combination of volitional traits.

A recent study by Willis W. Clark on supervised conduct-response of delinquent boys<sup>18</sup> discusses average response and change in response. The latter involves statistics on improvement, on change or retrogression in conduct-response over a period of one year. Seventy-three of the boys given the will-profile scale were included in Mr. Clark's study. The correlation between average conduct response and the test score is—.22. This seems to indicate that there is a slight tendency for boys scoring high in the will-profile scale to have a lower average response than those of lower will-profile scores. The correlation for change in response and test scores is .26. This would seem to indicate a moderate tendency for those of high will-profile scores to show more improvement in response than those of lower scores.

Comparing Dr. Downey's results among the group of 34 college students (discussed above) with the results among 100 delinquent boys, we note that the correlation between intelligence and the test score is .47 for students and .38 for delinquents. The correlation between intelligence and the score divided into first, second and third parts is .50, .30, and .07 for students, and .22, .09, and .20 for delinquents. The results of the correlations between intelligence and the three groups of the score suggest two interpretations: First that the four tests of the first group, with .50 and .22 for students and delinquents respectively, are more a test of intelligence than the others and second, as suggested by Dr. Downey, that persons of the quick and adaptable type make a better showing in intelligence examinations. The two groups of reagents are not, in this instance, entirely comparable, since the students were examined with a group intelligence test and the delinquents with individual intelligence tests. In view of the difference between the correlations for the three

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17. Jour. Exper. Psychol. III-4, p. 282.

18. Clark, Willis W. *Supervised Conduct-Response of Delinquent Boys*. (not yet published.)

groups, particularly .30 and .09 in the second part, Dr. Downey's interpretation seems more logical than that one part of the test measures intelligence more than another.

Of the groups examined by Dr. Downey, that of 21 high school freshman<sup>19</sup> is more comparable to the group included in this study. The freshman chronological ages ranged from 13 years 2 months to 15 years 11 months while the range in the delinquent group is 13 to 19 years. Freshman mental ages ranged from 13 to 17 years as against

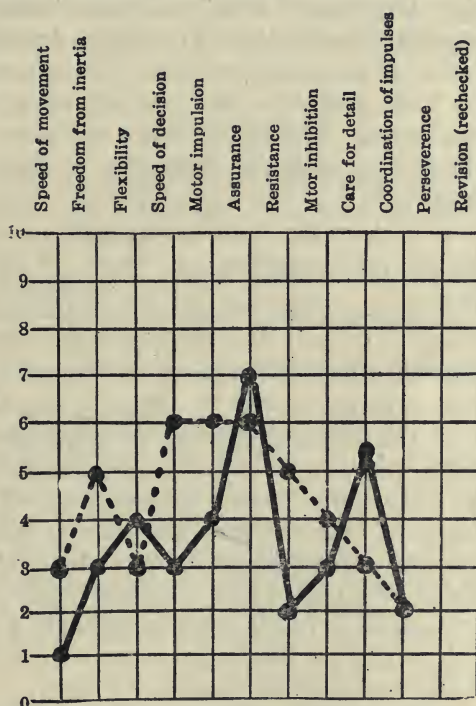


Fig. 10. Composite profile of 100 delinquent boys (heavy line) compared with composite profile of 21 high school freshmen (dotted line.)

8 years 8 months to 18 years 5 months for the delinquents. The range of I. Qs among the freshmen was .87 to 1.36, while the range in the delinquent group is from .55 to 1.27. The highest score found among freshmen was 60; the highest among delinquents 75. The median score for freshmen was 43, while that for the delinquent group is 45.5. This last is especially interesting. If this small group

19. Jour. Educ. Psychol. XI-3, p. 160.



of high school freshmen is characteristic of the whole, the total score on the will-profile shows no difference between the normal and delinquent juveniles. A comparison of the three profiles of freshmen with those of delinquents, shows a general similarity of pattern except for the persistent drop at "resistance" in the latter group. The profile of median scores by tests for the high school group as given by Dr. Downey compared with a similar profile of delinquents is given in Fig. 10. In this we note the higher score in "speed of decision", "motor impulsion" and "resistance" among high school students than among delinquents. The sharp dropping off at "resistance" continues to be a distinguishing feature of the profile of delinquents even when compared with a group of approximately the same chronological ages. The higher score in "care for detail" for delinquents is interesting as is the similarity of both scores in "coordination of impulses".

#### DISCUSSION AND SUMMARY

The material furnished by this study is by no means exhausted. Further work with this material and with the will-profile scale promises much of interest and of value. Dr. Downey is planning a group form of the scale which will widen its scope of usefulness. In the absence of test results from a larger group of reagents whose ages are comparable to those of the delinquent group no conclusion can be drawn as to the difference between delinquents and non-delinquents on the will-profile scale. When test results from a group of 100 school boys with a similar range of chronological ages are available this can be studied. The results of the present study indicate that such a task would be profitable. We must know from the study of a group large enough to yield conclusive results what constitutes a normal or average reaction for juveniles on the scale before we can find the significant features in the results of an abnormal group.

In summarizing the findings of this study we note the following points:

1. The median age for the delinquent group is 16 years 4.5 months with a median mental age of 13 years 3 months.
2. Within a range of 22 to 75, the median will-profile score is 45.5. (The median for the 21 high school freshman was 43.)
3. The composite profile of the delinquent group shows a wilful, aggressive individual with a greater tendency toward accuracy and and tenacity than toward adaptability.



4. Correlations of the test scores with ratings from independent estimates is .29; with I. Q.s, .38; with mental ages, .43; with average conduct response, —.22; with change in conduct response, .26.

5. The correlations of the first, second and third groups of the test with I. Q.s shows a different distribution from that found by Dr. Downey in a group of 34 college freshmen.

6. The sharp contrast between the relatively high score in "assurance" and low score in "resistance" is the most characteristic feature of the profile of the delinquent group. It continues to be so even when compared with individuals of approximately similar chronological ages.

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# The Journal of Delinquency

Published bi-monthly by The California Bureau  
of Juvenile Research  
WHITTIER, CALIFORNIA

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Entered as second-class matter March 27, 1916 at the Post Office at Whittier, California, under the Act of August 24, 1912. Acceptance for mailing at special rate of postage provided for in Section 1103, Act of October 3, 1917, authorized August 3, 1918.

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Vol. VI

January, 1921

No. 1

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## THE INTELLIGENCE OF DELINQUENT GIRLS

The first article in this issue is a discussion by Anderson of the findings of intelligence tests applied at the Connecticut School for Girls, at Middletown. The institution is a representative state school for girls. The findings, in general, are in accord with the usual findings of such surveys. There is an average intellectual retardation of 2.5 years. By the individual tests, about one-fifth of the cases are rated as defective, one-fourth borderline, one-fourth dull, one-fifth normal, and one-twelfth superior. The ratings of the group test accorded closely with those of the individual tests, illustrating the value and accuracy of the group method for making institution surveys.

The suggestion of the author, concluded from the group test results, that "this group of 197 delinquent girls could almost be called a fair sample of the population" will challenge the attention of those who have believed that the intelligence of delinquents is relatively inferior. The statement is based on Doll's contention relative to the average mental age of adults, which contention in turn is based on

the group-scale ratings of the white draft. We are of the opinion that there is more evidence yet to be produced on this point, and the fact that some of the leading psychological laboratories are still using the tentative 16-year level as a basis for comparing adults is significant.

It is interesting to note that institutions, notwithstanding the criticisms frequently directed at their educational work, have had in effect a system of school grading which is more nearly in accord with correct psychological procedure than is that of the public schools. Emotional and volitional differences, and even mental age, as the author of this article points out, have automatically become the chief bases of classification and segregation, except for very general age groupings. That this has been brought about as a part of institution routine, and through the observations of technically untrained, but extremely practical workers, is a fact worthy of note.

The making of institution surveys has only begun. There are almost as many different methods of procedure in state industrial schools as the number of schools. Wherever scientific methods have been introduced, there has been increased efficiency, and better relationship with the other problems of the state. We may hopefully look forward to the time when each institution will see its own part in the solution of the social problem which it represents, to the end that the need for institutions of all sorts may be greatly minimized or done away with entirely. (J. H. W.)

#### THE MEASUREMENT OF MENTAL STABILITY

Dr. Mateer's article sets forth an encouraging hope for the field of clinical psychology. Founded upon the sound principle of standardized procedure, comparative norms, and the natural degree-variability of human traits, the future success of the profession is largely dependent upon the extent to which that lead is followed. The systematic setting forth and the impartial interpretation of facts can alone define a scientific method. Clinical psychology proper is not befogged by theories to be proven, but may, by continuing the high ideals of its founders, give rise to new conceptions of child development which will make for greater human efficiency and progress.

We are introduced by Dr. Mateer to the preliminary experiments of the Ohio Bureau of Juvenile Research in the devising of a scale for evaluating mental stability. There is probably no form of psychological research which will be of more practical value in the study of juvenile delinquency than that which taps the realm of the non-



intellectual mentality. It is gratifying to know that the results thus far have brought forth a rough scale, and that even in its present form the method actually detects psychopathic conditions. We will await further developments with interest. Ohio may well be proud of its laboratory under Goddard's direction. (J. H. W.)

#### THE WILL-PROFILE METHOD

Miss Edythe K. Bryant, of the California Bureau of Juvenile Research, presents in this issue a report on the first 100 tests of Whittier State School boys by the Downey "will-profile" scale. This represents the growing tendency to use new psychological methods in the comparative study of delinquent children. An accurate scale of tests for measuring the chief components of volitional capacity should reveal some of the still undiscovered mental differences which are associated with irregular social behavior. The present investigation shows no striking results, but is a valuable supplement to the original data obtained by Dr. Downey with college students and public school children. At the present writing, Miss Bryant is experimenting further at the University of California psychological laboratory. (J. H. W.)

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## CORRESPONDENCE AND DISCUSSION

### THE STABILITY OF THE INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENT

*To the Editor:* In my article on the above subject (Jour. Del. Sept. 1920) I reproduced in full on p. 164 a table taken from Wallin's article, "The Value of the Intelligence Quotient" (Jour. Del. May 1919). The following quotation from my article which has reference to this table is perhaps self-explanatory,— "The first thing which challenges our attention is that the total number of cases contained in this table is 649, whereas Wallin's table we are told shows us the distribution of the I. Qs of 411 cases. However, on account of other points of methodological interest, we may continue our examination of this evidence assuming that 649 is the correct number of cases."

Since the publication of my article Dr. Wallin has been kind enough to explain to me how this apparent discrepancy came about and, in justice to Dr. Wallin and to myself, I desire to publish this explanation.

In Wallin's table, column No. 2 is entitled "Imbeciles", column No. 3 "Potential Morons", and column No. 4 "Imbeciles" (Potential Morons). It was Dr. Wallin's intention to exhibit in column No. 4 a combinations of columns No. 2 and No. 3, but through clerical errors of some sort the first three items in column No. 2 were omitted from column No. 4. Similarly column No. 9 was intended to show a combination of columns No. 7 and No. 8, but through clerical error the first item in column No. 7 was omitted from column No. 9. These clerical errors made it

impossible for me to surmise Dr. Wallin's intention. Had I known it, I would have omitted columns No. 4 and No. 9 from the condensed table (Table I, my article) which I computed from Dr. Wallin's table, and my table would have contained 411 cases instead of 649.

I wish to add that my critique of Wallin has no connection with these inaccuracies. Thus I stated on p. 167 that a coefficient of correlation computed on the basis of Wallin's table would *necessarily* have a greater value than the true value, and that statement remains true. The coefficient I calculated from Wallin's table was computed for purposes of illustration only, and the illustration would have the same force with the corrected figures, so that I do not believe it to be necessary to recalculate this coefficient. And my critique of Wallin's *interpretation* of his figures has no connection *whatever* with this inaccuracy.—Curt Rosenow.

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## QUOTATIONS

### SOCIAL UNREST AND DELINQUENCY

Before the great cataclysm of the world's war took place, experts had formulated ideas concerning the type of delinquents rather clearly into a few groups, namely, delinquency due to gross mental defect; delinquency due to slight mental defect (moronism) associated with affective deviation; delinquency due to constitutional psychopathic states associated with an inadequate personality, tendency to pathological lying, wanderlust, and other allied traits not useful to society; delinquency due to definite psychoses either of a constitutional type or organic in nature; delinquency due to extraordinary environmental reactions and occurring in presumably normal mentality. It was felt in pre-war days that the problem of caring for delinquent types could be fairly well met by the extension of mental clinics which would separate the various types known to exist and leave the residue of so-called normal individuals largely to the care of a modified parole system, after the abnormal mental types had been placed in institutions suited to their care, whereby much of the old horror of prison life would be abolished, with much better results as to the chances for the rehabilitation of the individual.

The world war with its consequent upsetting of all ordinary balances in social and commercial life, flame-colored by the extraordinary emotional swings of the whole human race in connection with the death and devastation produced, has demonstrated that delinquency among the so-called normal type in the groups enumerated above is a thing which depends upon many factors, some but dimly reorganized in the past, all of which affects the individual. Some of these traits reach back into heredity; others depend upon environment in childhood and general training; others are influenced by the constitutional peculiarity of the individual's character which may show extraordinarily emotional traits, particularly in the direction of overvaluation of ideas, easy suggestibility, and the like. Individuals of this latter group in ordinary times might have remained staid and plodding citizens in a simple and unchanging environment, but ambitions and long-submerged wishes were able to find an outlet through the excitement of the war or through extraordinary commercial situations arising during the course of the war, including unexpectedly high wages and vastly increased ability to satisfy personal



whims and cravings. Under such circumstances many persons developed a peculiar attitude of mind quite at variance with former concepts of their station in life and the possibilities of their community. As a result we read of waves of crime which have swept over the world, orgies of dissipation, and in particular an increase in crimes of acquisitiveness, as witnessed in the tremendous increase in automobile thefts, silk stealing, and the like.

Delinquency, then, must be looked upon not only as the reaction of an individual possibly of an abnormal type, but also as the reaction of an individual in any of these types in relation to his environment when the environment itself shows extraordinary variation from what might be expected.

The consideration of these things demonstrates more forcibly than ever before how the whole future of the problem of delinquency depends first upon adequate diagnosis of existing mental or physical defect, the correction of these defects so far as possible, and training of the individual in a scholastic and vocational way, and finally the placing out of the individual under supervision in the community in a sphere to which he will be suited by reason of the foregoing diagnosis and specialized training. It is important that institutions be adequately manned by a personnel having insight into these needs who will further assist in the rehabilitation of social liabilities under their care through an adequate graded scholastic and vocational system, and finally through a modern parole system which by social service will reduce environmental stress to the minimum.

Psychopathic states of all kinds represent abnormal mental reactions and a certain number of such individuals will always be found in any institution caring for delinquents. It is therefore a matter of administrative efficiency as well as of scientific value that such institutions have at least one ward equipped for the care of psychopathic cases wherein they may be treated by approved methods, including hydrotherapy and continuous baths. As is well known, many of the psychopathic upsets in such individuals are quite transitory in nature and the ability for each institution to care for its disturbed cases from time to time will prevent an undue number of transfers. This plan implies that cases showing actual psychoses or mental defect of such a character as to render the individual unable adequately to care for himself should be cared for in hospitals and institutions built and equipped for the care and treatment of such cases.

It is probably true that the human race as at present constituted requires a certain amount of repression and fear of consequences in order to prevent those less highly endowed from becoming antisocial and a nuisance. Therefore, just laws must always be the rule of the State, but we shall have taken a great step in advance when, in arranging for the care of crass delinquency as it now appears in our courts, we provide for its proper determination, care and treatment rather than punitive measures alone which are as old as the world and which to-day are as unsatisfactory as they always have been.—*Chester Lee Carlisle*. In 53rd Annual Report, N. Y. State Board of Charities, 1919. pp. 165-168.

#### DELINQUENTS IN ORPHANAGES

One of the rules of the New York State Board of Charities prohibits the retention of any normal child under sixteen as a public charge in institutions which receive persons committed for delinquency unless their complete and continuous separation is at all times maintained. There appears to be no statement that th



reverse procedure is prohibited with the result that we find delinquent and defective children in institutions equipped to maintain destitute but normal children.

Although children under the age of twelve are no longer admitted to the State School at Industry, no provision has been made elsewhere for ungovernable children under, nor for those over, that age. Many are forced into orphanages where their presence is a distinct menace to children among whom they are placed and increases the burden of those charged with the care and development of character of children who, from the very nature of their admission, generally have a weaker physical, mental or moral background than the average child. The only real "defect" of children for whom orphanages were established is destitution.

Whether the abnormal child thus improperly placed has been charged with truancy, petty larceny, low mentality, vicious habits or other traits leading to outright delinquency, he carries among those committed for no other crime than poverty (and some children are thus committed under Section 486 of the Penal Law) the tendencies that often render him "unfit to associate with his own brothers and sisters."

It is comparatively easy to protect children in institutions from underfeeding, over-work, over-crowding and unwholesome physical surroundings in general. But no ordinary routine inspection can prevent association with unwholesome companions.

One answer to this problem is the organization of institutions for "difficult" children. They could be made happy by giving them work that they would enjoy and academic training to the extent of their mental capacity. A better plan, however, would be the withdrawal of children who are in institutions because of poverty alone and placing them in properly selected and supervised, free or boarding homes where they would be happier than in institutions. There would remain from 20 to 80 per cent of the children who need institutional training. The present orphanages under the plan proposed would be in a position to render service to society for the money spent to maintain them. For a generation now, child-welfare workers and students have reiterated that "children should not be deprived of home-life for reasons of poverty alone." Such a plan could be readily accomplished.

In spite of this accepted fact, children are still being deprived of home life. A start can be made by removing normal children now in institutions to homes where they naturally belong. Abnormal children who are now in homes where they make themselves unhappy and society vindictive, can then be placed in institutions where they can receive the exceptional training that they require.—*Armand Wyle. Survey, XLV-10, Dec. 4, 1920. p. 368.*

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## PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

Bishop, Ernest S.: *The Narcotic Drug Problem*. New York: Macmillan Company, 1920. pp. 165. Price \$1.50.

A valuable scientific discussion of the problem of narcotics and the consequences of their use. The author looks at the question from the point of view of scientific endeavor to promote the welfare of the public. He deals with the nature and

mechanism of drug-addiction, the treatment of addicts, the relation to other diseases, and the scope of legislation bearing on the subject. Drug users, according to the author, should be looked upon as victims of a definite disease, not as offenders. The outlook, with the improvement of laws and extensive scientific work, is encouraging. A valuable feature of the book is the appendix of "human documents" on the personal side of drug addiction. (J. H. W.)

**Breckinbridge, Sophonisba, and Jeter, Helen R.:** *A Summary of Juvenile Court Legislation in the United States*. Washington: U.S. Children's Bureau, 1920. Publication No. 70. pp. 110.

This pamphlet is an excellent summary of laws pertaining to juvenile court procedure, and is probably the best and most authentic discussion of the subject since Eliot's "Juvenile Court and the Community". Beginning in 1899, the several states have enacted as many different types of laws pertaining to the socially exceptional child. There is probably no other legislation which varies as widely upon a subject which, after all, is due everywhere to the same human factors. A good index and catalog of enactments are included. The authors and the children's Bureau have rendered a valuable service in the compilation and publication of so complete a report. (J. H. W.)

**Brewer, John M.** *The Need of Vocational Guidance in Any Plan for Vocational Education*. Reprinted from Educational Administration and Supervision, March, 1920. pp. 1-13.

Dr. Brewer very wisely calls attention to the human element to be considered in any plans for vocational education; and his scheme for administering this type of work would seem to meet the principal problems in the vocational guidance of future trained workers. The suggested scheme embodies six steps or aids to the student which, in substance, are (1) short try-out courses, and (2) classes in occupations, followed by (3) counseling, testing and opportunity for sensible choice of occupation before entering into (4) vocational education. To follow-up and insure efficient use of the chosen training come (5) the imparting of information about opportunities to secure employment and (6) continued supervision and counsel to aid in advancement after employment is secured. The proper relation of "vocational guidance" to the seeker of vocational education is indicated not as one of assignment, as is too often the case, but as one of real assistance and opportunity for individual expression. (K. M. C.)

**Butler, Fred Clayton.** *State Americanization*. Washington: Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 77. 1919. pp. 26.

The primary purpose of this booklet is to lay before the interested persons "concrete suggestions of ways by which the State may serve effectively in the education and the assimilation into full fellowship and citizenship of our foreign-born people." The importance of the problem is indicated by the draft statistics which show that 24.9 per cent were unable to read an American newspaper or write a letter. Two important needs are (1) provision of facilities for teaching the English language, then creating a desire to learn on the part of the foreign-born, and (2) standardization of citizenship requirements. Factors to be considered in state legislation, the relation of the state and community, outline of a state Americanization survey, and coordination of forces within the state are considered in practical detail by the writer. This bulletin should be in the hands of



all those engaged in the task of organizing and directing this important phase of the social problem. (W. W. C.)

Cooley, Edwin J.: *The Progress of Probation*. New York: Magistrates Courts, Oct. 1, 1920. pp. 36.

That probation is an important factor in social justice and the ultimate prevention of crime is strongly emphasized in this pamphlet, under the authority of the chief of one of the strongest probation organizations in the world. Mr. Cooley sees in probation an opportunity for the public to deal justly with the offender, to punish him more severely, and to secure more effective supervision for him than can be provided by institutions, and at less actual cost. To do this work properly, however, he points out the need for better salaries and better trained probation officers. The probation work in connection with the Magistrates Courts of New York City is discussed in an interesting manner. It is safe to say that if the ideals set forth by Mr. Cooley were followed in all probation organizations, this particular form of social work would be more effectively carried on. (J. H. W.)

Dearborn, Walter F.: *The Dearborn Group Tests of Intelligence, Series I*. (Manual of Directions). Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1920. pp. 28.

The Dearborn tests, the outcome of several years of experimentation by the author at Harvard University, are intended to especially serve teachers in making mental surveys of their own pupils. The series is free from linguistic tests, and is adapted to grades I to III. The use of group tests is becoming an essential part of the best educational procedure, and is to be encouraged. There is reason to believe that the early classification of school pupils can be an important factor in the prevention of delinquency. (J. H. W.)

Dublin, Louis I.: *Mortality Statistics of Insured Wage-Earners and Their Families*. New York: Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, 1919. pp. 397.

This publication presents the mortality statistics of industrial policy-holders for six years. The statistics are essentially those of the wage-earning group of the population and afford valuable comparative data in connection with general population mortality statistics. In view of the large exposure, the considerable period of time covered, and the care exercised in gathering, editing and tabulating the data, it is evident that this volume constitutes the most sensitive index now available of mortality and its causes among wage-earners and their families. (W. W. C.)

Dunn, Arthur William: *Civic Training Through Service*. Bureau of Education, Teachers Leaflet No. 8. Washington: Government Printing Office. 1920. pp. 13.

During the war the Junior Red Cross became a strong organization for service. This mechanism still stands and seems a good tool with which to work toward the aim of better everyday citizenship. The plan is outlined and briefly discussed under the headings An Administrative organization; A program of activities; An Interchange of school correspondence; The Junior Red Cross News; Outlines of civic training and instruction; Service through conservation and thrift; and Community recognition of civic achievement. The plans are practical and are already in use in many schools. This pamphlet and the publications now in preparation giving material and further details of the several parts of the plan, should be in the hands of teachers everywhere. (J. M.)



Ferguson, George O. Jr.: *The Intelligence of Negroes at Camp Lee, Va.* Reprinted from *School and Society*, IX-233, June 14, 1919. pp. 721-726.

This study is one of the scientifically valuable products of the war. As a study of racial differences it is especially worth-while being based on a comparatively large mass of data, standardized group tests having been available for use on large groups of subjects. The findings for the large unselected group of negroes corroborate former studies of relatively restricted and selected groups, showing that the general level of intelligence for the race is distinctly below that for unselected white groups, that the colored group contains a higher percentage of illiteracy and has a lower average school attainment. Distinct differences within the race are noted as between the dark and light skinned and between rural and urban population. A rough geographical distribution shows the general level of intelligence of the northern negroes to be considerable above that for those from the south.

(K. M. C.)

Goddard, Henry H.: *Psychology of the Normal and Subnormal.* New York: Dodd, Meade & Co. 1919. pp. 349. Price \$5.00.

Deliberately departing from the traditional content of text-book psychology, Dr. Goddard has introduced a new epoch in the teaching of this subject. Psychology, according to the author's conception, is useful only insofar as it contributes to the practical aspects of human behavior. The book throughout reflects this view, and in consequence will fill a useful mission in the colleges and universities where it is used as a text. Considerable emphasis is placed in the modern applications of psychology in the fields of intelligence, emotion, and temperament. On the whole it is a fitting climax to Dr. Goddard's epoch making work in the study of feeble-mindedness and normality. The book is well printed and conveniently outlined. A bibliography of 55 selected references is appended. (J. H. W.)

Higgins, Henry A.: *Prison Education.* Boston: Massachusetts Prison Association, 1920. No. 67. pp. 25.

An interesting, although unnecessarily rhetorical, account of the improvements effected by a new prison manager at the Deer Island House of Correction, Boston. A verification of the oft-proven value of sane and liberal institution administration. (J. H. W.)

Kellogg, Vernon.; *The National Research Council.* Washington, D. C.: September, 1920. pp. 8. (Reprinted from *International Conciliation*.)

As the newly-appointed permanent secretary of the National Research Council, Professor Kellogg outlines the scope and plans of this important organization. It is interesting to note that the Council differs from analogous organizations in other countries in that it is entirely supported by endowments and gifts, and is hence privately controlled, although enjoying the good will and cooperation of all governmental agencies. (J. H. W.)

Link, Henry C.: *Employment Psychology.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1920. pp. 440.

Henry C. Link's *Employment Psychology* is a distinctly noteworthy contribution to the application of scientific methods to the selection, training and grading of employees. Its treatment of the problem in hand is thoroughly sound. Although Dr. Link's position on the subject of general intelligence is not entirely invulner-

able, his suggestions on the testing of specific abilities are extremely valuable. Anyone contemplating the use of psychological tests in industry for the purposes of selective placement or promotion should make a careful study of this book. His story of his methods of getting into industry and gaining confidence are interesting, for this is probably the most serious problem of all. The student of this book should constantly bear in mind, however, that the author's experience is only an individual case; other investigators will not have experiences paralleling this one to a great degree. (*Charles C. Stech, Pacific Coast Bureau of Employment Research.*)

**Los Angeles County Probation Department.**: Annual Report. 1919. pp. 14. (Compiled by Nell G. Eigholz, statistician.)

An interesting report of the year's work of the Los Angeles Juvenile Court, of which the following items indicate the scope and problems involved: The total number of court wards at the end of the year included 1689 boys and 856 girls. The ages range from birth to 21 years, averaging 15 years for boys and 14 years for girls. About 6 per cent were foreign born. About 1.2 per cent of the school population of Los Angeles County was on probation during the year. Of 1342 cases 234 were "charged" with poor home conditions, inadequate guardianship, or destitution. The principal offences for boys were violation of traffic laws, burglary, and petit larceny; for girls, immorality, refusing to obey, and truancy. Commitments to state schools were as follows: California School for Girls, 22; Whittier State School, 66; Preston School of Industry, 98. Of 1245 cases dismissed from the court, 555, or about 45 per cent, are reported as having "made good." The work involved 14,251 reports by probationers, 34,359 office interviews, and 24,288 outside calls. (J. H. W.)

**Pasadena, California.** *Report of Division of Domestic Relations*, July 1, 1917 to June 30, 1920. Emma W. Speer, director. Pasadena: Department of Relief and Social Service. pp. 7.

The good work that can be done by a well organized department of public service is illustrated in this report. Other cities of the size of Pasadena could profitably pattern after this method. (J. H. W.)

**Porteus, S. D., and Hill, Helen F.**: *Condensed Guide to the Binet Tests*. Reprinted from *The Training School Bulletin*, March-April 1920. Vineland, N. J. April 1920. pp. 39.

This pamphlet is intended to constitute a guide for administering and scoring the Binet tests. It is based upon the Stanford Revision as regards standardization. The guide is characterized by a selection of tests believed by Dr. Porteus to be of the most diagnostic value, and by the provision of percentile tables. (J. H. W.)

**Queen, Stuart Alfred**: *The Passing of the County Jail*. Menasha, Wisconsin: George Banta Publishing Co. 1920. pp. 158.

An extensive and valuable study of the county jail problem, looking toward its ultimate elimination. The study is based chiefly on observations made in California. The author's preliminary findings were published as a bulletin of the California State Board of Charities and Corrections, under the title "Study in County Jails in California". He proposes to substitute, for the present unsatisfactory system, a state department having jurisdiction over all prisons and jails, and the handling of prisoners through a series of receiving stations and clearing houses.



All persons awaiting trial would thus be wards of the state, resulting, it is believed, in more efficient handling and segregation than is possible through local units. The author is hopeful, however, of preventive work, and looks forward to the time when all forms of incarceration may be greatly minimized or done away with.  
(J. H. W.)

**Sutherland, A. H.:** *Ungraded Rooms in the Los Angeles City Schools*. Los Angeles: City School Publication No. 24, June 1919. pp. 36.

As the first annual report of the psychological division of the Los Angeles schools, Dr. Sutherland presents in this pamphlet a discussion of his valuable work in connection with the special classes. A series of "adjustment rooms", enrolling 5,000 pupils, provide for retarded children who by individual instruction can be brought back to their normal standing in the regular grades. Another series of "development rooms", enrolling 500 pupils, provide for children who otherwise could not profit from the public schools. Dr. Sutherland's work is based upon sound psychological procedure, and his methods are worthy of emulation by other cities. (J. H. W.)

**Terman, Lewis M.:** *Condensed Guide for the Stanford Revision of the Binet-Simon Intelligence Tests*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1920. pp. 32. Price \$1.00.

A convenient and extremely practical guide for examiners. Contains instructions for administering the tests of the Stanford-Binet series arranged in a manner which insures greater accuracy and ease of testing. The styles of type chosen together with the general make-up and binding of the book are a credit to the author and publishers. This guide should be in the hands of all trained examiners.  
(J. H. W.)

**Thompson, Charles B.:** *Mental Disorders Briefly Described and Classified*. Baltimore, Warwick & York, 1920. pp. 48. Price 75 cents.

A valuable service has been rendered by the author in classifying and describing the mental disorders, and in placing his descriptions in convenient form for ready reference. Numerous case studies are given, illustrative of the several mental diseases. When used as the author cautions, "in conjunction with the actual observation of cases, and in consultation with a trained psychiatrist," the manual will be of use to psychologists, physicians, and social workers. (J. H. W.)

**Toronto Bureau of Municipal Research.** *Measurement of Educational Waste in the Toronto Public Schools*. Toronto, Canada: May, 1920. pp. 33.

The illuminating feature of this survey is the fact that it is presented by a non-educational organization, indicating the interest and importance which the people of Toronto attach to their public schools. It is chiefly a compilation of official reports and quotations, but includes some first hand data relative to age and grade distribution. The recommendations are progressive and far-reaching, and include repeated emphasis on the needs of the individual child, the segregation of pupils, and more flexibility in the school system. With reference to the elimination of feeble-minded children from the regular classes, it is urged that "this should be done at once, even if it is necessary to rent private houses for the purpose." If the school authorities of Toronto put these recommendations into effect they will have a school system of which any city could be justly proud. (J. H. W.)



U. S. Bureau of Education: *Recreation and Rural Health*. Teacher's Leaflet No. 7, April, 1920. Washington: Government Printing Office. pp. 14.

An interesting and meaty discussion of rural recreation problems and needs. Having briefly outlined those "phases of bodily growth, mental alertness, or neuromuscular coordination" which rural life neglects or perverts, the report goes on to discuss what forms of recreation are best suited to fill this need. Play is considered as one means of offsetting the non-symmetrical bodily and mental development common in rural sections. The report also finds that the number of agencies at work on the problem is sufficient; that what is needed is "effectiveness, correlation and extension." The need for research to furnish data for a basis of work is emphasized. In conclusion, a minimum standard requirement of play and recreation and the requisites of a good game for rural communities are discussed. (E. K. B.)

Watson, Homer K.: *Causes of Delinquency Among Fifty Negro Boys*. Los Angeles: University of Southern California, Sociological Monograph No. 14, 1919. pp. 12. Price 15 cents.

This study is one of a series of sociological monographs published by the Southern California Sociological Society under the editorship of Dr. E. S. Bogardus. It presents the findings of investigation and intimate acquaintance with fifty Negro boys who were under the supervision of Mr. Watson as attendance officer and parental school teacher. The boys found their way into parental schools principally for the following reasons: truancy, 42 per cent; incorrigibility, 24 per cent; stealing, 16 per cent; failure in grade, 8 per cent; fighting, 6 per cent; and trouble with teachers, 4 per cent. Thirty-six of the fifty boys and brothers or sisters of twenty had at some time been in Juvenile Hall, the detention home in Los Angeles. An average monthly income of \$60, the families broken in 68 per cent of the cases, and an average of seven members per family indicate inferior home conditions. Only twelve of the families were living under good economic conditions. On the basis of these facts and observations concerning physical, mental, and moral status the writer concluded that "truancy among the fifty Negro boys investigated was due partly to poor heritage, but principally to environmental conditions under which they were forced to live." (W. W. C.)

Wood, Edith Elmer. *The Housing of the Unskilled Wage Earner*. New York: Macmillan Company, 1919. pp. 321. Price \$2.25.

A discussion and historical resume of recent developments in the housing situation in the United States and foreign countries, and an account of restrictive legislation, model housing laws, and philanthropic and corporation schemes are given in this publication. This summary is followed by chapters on the beginnings of constructive housing legislation in the United States, objections to constructive housing legislation, and an outline of a comprehensive housing policy for the United States. The author feels that the problem is clearly a community one, and that it has become a social duty to make sure that the dwellings of even the poorest citizens are clean and wholesome. More particularly, it is proposed that government aid should be provided by (1) direct state or municipal housing, (2) loans to non-commercial housing companies, (3) loans to individual workingmen, and, possibly (4) tax exemptions for houses of approved standard and rental. (W. W. C.)

## PERIODICAL LITERATURE

**The Juvenile Delinquent.** The important facts in criminology are first that the present method of dealing with crime is a failure and second that the habitual criminal always starts at an early age. The organ of conduct is the mind. How can it be possible to deal properly with a prisoner without studying its mind? Mental defect accounts for 10 per cent of all prisoners. After eliminating the defectives we may divide juvenile delinquents into two groups. In the general group we may place those whose trouble has been caused by some physical defect or bad environment, while in the special group we put those for whom some special mental analysis is necessary. We must always bear in mind the moral immaturity of children, and the increasing complexity of modern social and industrial life. As regards treatment of the delinquent the orthodox choice of fine, imprisonment and admonition are alike useless. Social reform is one of the most important steps. The child must have opportunities to play and develop. The moral question is also important; no age is too young, no class too well protected for the practice of bad habits. The inauguration of the Birmingham scheme for the special examination of prisoners, and the widespread interest it has aroused, indicates at least an appreciation of the importance of the problem of the young delinquent, and also of the only way it can be solved.—*W. A. Potts. Social Hygiene, XI-3, Nov. 1920. pp. 114. (M. S. C.)*

**Recreation versus Delinquency.** On account of the vicious by-products of fatigue, lack of recreation and undirected play, a combination of education, recreation and interesting employment is necessary in a formula to make a well-rounded citizen. Although playgrounds and laws establishing recreation centers do not solve the problem of juvenile delinquency yet there are certain contributory causes of delinquency which may be corrected by organized community play or supervised recreation. Play is a biological necessity for expenditure of nervous energy; the problem of juvenile crime is largely one of opportunity for play. Chicago studies show decreased crime due to awakening of social sense through recreational opportunity. Rights of others, fairness, self control, wholesome unstrained relations, broader normal experiences are emphasized in recreation when organized on community basis. States have recognized this in the development of legislation from that permitting recreational facilities to mandatory provisions, for park boards and recreational commissions. Modern churches provide for social enjoyment and physical development. Sunday would better be filled with active organized sports than be a day of idleness breeding lawlessness. Holiday play festivals, community use of public school facilities, extension of these for community purposes, properly supervised public dances, public library extension, organization of clubs, and summer camps have, in various places, combatted successfully non- and anti-social influences and conditions, and have aided in the building up of individual and group social conscience.—*Maud I. Doebelin. School and Society, XII—308, November 20, 1920. pp. 478-487. (K.M.C.)*

**Emotional States and Illegal Acts.** Many crimes are committed under emotional stress when the lower, more mechanical, animal centers in the medulla and spinal cord dominate and overpower the higher centers of the brain and enter into con-



trol of the whole human personality. There may be complete amnesia for all that happened during the period of this domination. The war time experiences of returned soldiers furnish interesting parallels to crimes of this sort. The emotional crisis which results in action does not always happen to offend against existing law. Where it does it brings up the doctrine of "criminal responsibility", the whole chapter on which needs to be re-written and the old legal shibboleths thrown overboard. Lawyers and judges must be courteously bothered until they make a new law, and gradually educated to new and more understanding habits of thinking in regard to these cases. One fundamental thing must be remembered and that is, that in almost every case of illegal acts done under stress there can be found in the individual committing them stigmata and symptoms of subnormality. The delinquent who has committed a crime under emotional duress is almost always not on a level with the general run of other human beings. If lawyers can be made to see this—that the delinquent in question has lost control of his actions under emotional stress because his thinking machine is not a normal one they will gradually accustom themselves to the doctrine of "restricted responsibility" which is the only adequate conception.—*John R. Oliver*. *Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology*, XI-I, May 1920. pp. 77-95. (J. M.)

**The Importance of Character Study in Criminology.** Psychologically behavior, or action, is the product of character rather than of intelligence, as thought is the product of intelligence rather than of character. The two are not separable, however, nor distinct in their functioning. In rehabilitation of the prisoner both his thinking and his character must be taken into account. Having ascertained an offender's intelligence capacity the problem is to find how his intelligence and character may best effect his own rehabilitation. Some of the psychological steps toward reformation are, (1) To *regret* the damage to the offender and to others caused by his mistakes. (2) To *intend* to do better. (3) To *make a plan* for living each day and evening for a long time (3 to 5 years) while practicing his good intentions. (4) To *decide* to follow the plan and to *determine* to adhere to it. (5) To go out and *live* the plan as determined. It is illuminating to some prisoners to find how many of these steps have been taken and how much it will cost to take those remaining, while other methods are better adapted to some offenders. Each case should be analyzed and the best characterial remedy applied. The problem of finding and presenting to each one his best plan of action is a scientific, humanitarian undertaking well worthy of the best energies of any man.—*Guy G. Fernald*. *Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology*, XI, May 1920. pp. 107-112. (J. M.)

**Criminality from the Eugenic Standpoint.** The greater interest in crime now is due neither to increase in crime, nor misdirected sentimentality. It is due to the fact that the public now recognizes that the present method of dealing with crime is a failure. Crime is dealt with by people some of whom never heard of considering conduct from a mental point of view. It should be studied before the individual ever goes to prison. If he should go to prison when his case is actually a mental one then he has a stigma all his life from which he should be free. We must segregate these mental defectives, because mental defect is an hereditary character. Inheritance does not explain every case of mental defect, yet it does explain a large number. Dr. Golling showed, by his valuable statistics, that the

question of heredity does come in. Criminality is a characteristic which can be inherited in the same way as the predisposition to tubercular disease or insanity. The criminal may be the victim of heredity or environment but never really the victim of circumstances. Again the prisoner is often really guilty of something which has lead to the offence. Many women who are charged with petty thefts often steal to get money for drink, therefore you should deal with them as inebriates or as one mentally unstable. Recently at a public conference Dr. Addison said the time would come when we should look upon the present provision of lunatic asylums as memorials for a not very glorious past. So I think when we deal properly with criminals we shall look upon the large number at the present time as regards of a not very glorious past.—*W. A. Potts. Eugenics Review, XII-2, July 1920. pp. 81-90. (M. S. C.)*

**Jails as Continuation Schools.** Two New York girls over 16 years of age, unable to pay a fine, were sent to jail for being truant from school. The state education department has failed to foresee this outcome of compulsory education laws. The incident has aroused discussion of the relations of jails to schools and the lack of proper provision for cases of failure to attend school. "If the final outcome of compulsory education makes the jail an integral part of our school system, is it not about time that we reconsider the whole structure of the system?—*Quotation from the Survey. School and Society, XII-307, Nov. 13, 1920. (K. M. C.)*

**Prisoners vs. "Men Generally".** The mental survey of penitentiary prisoners in Illinois by Dr. Herman Adler dispels the idea of the existence of a uniform mental criminal type and is of significance comparable to Dr. Goring's report which repudiated the existence of a uniform physical criminal type. Records of 1650 prisoners examined by army tests reveal that the penitentiary has a fewer men of inferior development than the draft army and that it has more men of superior mental development. The report further shows: Relatively few inferior men, relatively many superior men in the crimes of fraud and crimes against property; the reverse in case of sex crimes; the short-termers an average group; the long-termers often either superior or inferior with a large percentage of inferior. Those prisoners, who had served prison terms, had half as many inferior types, and nearly twice as many superior types as those prisoners without previous records of arrest.—*Survey, XLV-5, Oct. 30, 1920. pp. 147-148. (W. W. C.)*

**The Unadjusted Girl.** In Texas there is little opportunity of recognizing the unadjusted girl until her maladjustments have resulted in delinquency. Her home is apt to be a covered wagon or "shot gun" house of three rooms with no privacy. Her food is often of the poorest quality which certainly has a direct bearing on physical degeneracy. Aside from the unfitness of the parents and the home the community feels little responsibility for the welfare of the girl. The public school is inadequate, due to the lack of funds. The church has not helped. Finally, after heredity has done its worst, after the physical structure of the home has given its quota to personal demoralization, after the unprepared parents have indulged to the danger point, after the family dietary has produced a physical weakening, after the school has repelled the child and the church forgotten its mission, after the recreational facilities have done all in their commercialized power to destroy every ideal—then the court steps in, the great adjuster. Eugenically the delinquent girl is a terrible misfit, and reflects the folly and criminal negligence of the state in regard to marriage regulations. Idiots, epileptics, syphilitics



and tuberculars marry *ad libitum*. At the Texas Training School the chief difficulties in discipline have been with girls whose heredity must inevitably have rendered them psychopathic.—*Carrie Weaver Smith*. Social Hygiene, VI-3, July 1920. pp. 401-406. (M. S. C.)

**The School as an Agency in Preventing Social Liabilities.** The public schools are appearing as a first relay station where potential defectives of all descriptions physical, mental, educational, and social may be recognized and where treatment may begin. Facts challenging our attention are the two per cent of feeble-minded children in our population, the seven million annual grade repeaters, the small amount of special educational provision for these, only 13 per cent of school children who graduate from high school, the sixth grade as the average American school attainment, the two per cent of all children who appear before juvenile courts and the 64,000 inmates of industrial schools for delinquents, enormous numbers of children showing signs of mental unbalance, and a half million children of superior ability only 600 of whom are receiving suitable education. Physical defects also demand attention. A program to care for the feeble-minded demands the identification, registration, special education and adequate supervision of the defectives, with education of the public to support the plan. The problem of delinquency calls for preventive measures, with recognition of and care for the potential delinquent, more scientific study and intelligent handling of the offender. In a similar way conservation of the home and adequate care for dependents is needed. Much should be done in the way of preventive hygiene. Gifted children call for a special pedagogy to develop their capacities.—*S. C. Kohns*. School and Society, XII-303, Oct. 16, 1920. pp. 325-330. (K. M. C.)

**Placing Ohio's Child Wards.** Casual methods of investigation in placing children have resulted in virtual child slavery and exploitation in some counties in Ohio. Many children who should be in private homes are placed in the county childrens' homes, established in about sixty of the eighty-eight counties, where adequate segregation and classification is often not effected. Furthermore the long time care of normal children in county homes is wasteful. These institutions could be used for special service for children who cannot be cared for in families and might well function as receiving homes where needy children could be sent for intensive-physical, mental and social study, but not for long custodial care. The proper development of case work and home finding propaganda would result in the restoration of many of these children to their reclaimed homes, and the placement of other children who need individual care in institutions especially adapted to their needs. The county home could shelter and care for certain feeble-minded children and others not readily placed until other provision is made. The community will be subjected to the expense of caring for children needlessly until it develops an extensive service for the social diagnosis and treatment of needy families.—*C. V. Williams*. Survey, XLV-10, Dec. 4, 1920. pp. 366, 367. (W. W. C.)

**First Revision of a Group Scale Designed for Investigating the Emotions.** Test I. Affective Spread and Displacement: Twenty-five lists of words, five in a list, all but twenty-five of them more or less unpleasant. The subject is to read the lists, crossing out each word unpleasant to him. Then draw a line around the most unpleasant word in each list. The number of words marked is used as measure of affective spread or tendency to emotionalize. The number of lists in which

the subject chooses as most unpleasant a word other than that most frequently chosen gives the measure of emotional peculiarity or displacement. Test II. Emotional Distractability: Two paragraphs, one dull and commonplace, the other gruesome. In each are twenty irrelevant words which must be crossed out within a time limit. Scored by counting difference between the number of words missed in the two paragraphs. Test III. Moral Discrimination and Experience: Twenty-five lists of five moral terms each. Procedure much as in Test I. Scored on number of deviations from most common choice. Test IV. Free Association: Twenty-five lists of five words each, the first one in capitals. Subjects draw a line through the word in each list most closely connected with the word in capitals. Scored on the number of deviations from the most common associate. Test V. Emotional Memory: A list of one hundred words, fifty of which have occurred in previous tests and fifty of which have not. Of these fifty, twenty-five are unemotional. This test yields two scores. These revised tests have been given to a total of 101 college students and some tentative norms worked out. The writers realize the crudeness of the tests and the inadequacy of the data, but are publishing this study with the hope that others who are working with special groups may be interested to cooperate. They would like to get results from a group of factory hands, from a group of colored adults, a group of delinquents and a pathological group (preferably neurotics or early dementia praecox). Tests forms and tabulation to date will gladly be furnished to anyone who wishes to cooperate. *S. L. Pressy and O. R. Chambers. Journal of Applied Psychology, IV-1,—Mar. 1920. pp. 97-104. (J. M.)*

**Conditioned Emotional Reactions.** The authors wished to find out: I. Whether we can condition fear of an animal, e.g., a white rat, by visually presenting it and at the same time striking a steel bar. II. If established, can such a conditioned emotional response be transferred? III. What effect has time upon such conditioned responses. IV. If, after a reasonable time, such responses have not died out, what laboratory methods can be devised for their removal? The subject of the experiment was Albert B., a child reared in the hospital where his mother was employed as wet nurse. A normal child, stable and unemotional. After repeated experiments from the time he was nine months until he was a year and twenty-one days old, the first and second of these questions seem beyond a doubt to be answered in the affirmative. As to third, it was found that the conditioned reactions do persist for a longer period than one month, with, however, some loss of intensity. Probably they persist and modify personality throughout life. The fourth question was not answered because of Albert's departure from the hospital but had there been opportunity, several methods would have been tried, such as (1) Constantly confronting the child with the stimuli until habituation came in, corresponding to "fatigue" of reflex when differential reactions are to be set up. (2) By trying to "recondition" by showing the feared objects and at the same time stimulating the erogenous zones. (3) By trying to "recondition" by feeding the subject candy or other food just as the animal is shown. (4) By building up "constructive," activities around the object. Some incidental observations from the experiment: (a) That thumb-sucking is a compensatory device for blocking noxious stimuli. (b) That fear is as primal a factor as love in influencing personality. Emotional disturbance in adults cannot be traced back to sex alone, but



must be retraced along collateral lines to conditioned and transferred responses set up in early infancy and youth in the three fundamental emotions of fear, rage and love.—*John B. Watson and Rosalie Rayner*. *Journal of Experimental Psychology* III-1, February, 1920. pp. 1-14. (J. M.)

**Why Teach a Child to Play?**—The term "supervised play" is not paradoxical as some would have us think. The instincts of workmanship, initiative, competition and cooperation are fundamental, but their application is not. From infancy the mother teaches the child to play which means, in the last analysis, directs the child's interests and energies along healthful lines. Case after case appears in juvenile court records where one or the other of these normal instincts has either been so undirected or so cramped that anti-social conduct and a juvenile delinquent has resulted. It is not the instinct which is at fault, rather is it lack of proper direction and outlet for instincts without which the world could not have progressed. The spirit of collecting is in every boy nature, yet if without bugs and butterflies he may collect trinkets by looting ten-cent stores. Wanderlust caused the discovery of new posts of the world, but it was wanderlust with a wide scope and proper aim. "The police and criminal courts are full of cases of misdirected rivalry and competition, the right expression of which has meant so much to the world." "What we need in our courts, in our lawyers and our judges is not more law but more psychology."—*George E. Johnson*. *Public Health* (Michigan) VIII-687 (New Series,) pp. 253-260. (E. K. B.)

**The Measurement of Intelligence as an Aid to Administration.** As a result of a special three month course of instruction, Spokane now has one hundred teachers expert in giving and interpreting intelligence tests. The measurement of the intelligence of the school pupils has five particular values for administration, (1) to show correct grade location according to mental age to eliminate the retardation of the bright pupils, (2) to properly retard those with low mental ages, (3) to eliminate from school those who have progressed as far as their intelligence will ever permit, (4) to give a scientific basis for the grading of those who are found to be in their proper places, and (5) to give better understanding of problem cases.—*George W. Frasier*. *Educational Administration and Supervision*, VI-7, October 1920. pp. 361-366. (K. M. C.)

**An Experiment in Grading Children.** Public School No. 64, Manhattan, at the end of its third year enrolls 3200 pupils, has established 30 classes, divided into eight groups as follows: *Terman classes*, for very superior and gifted children, 4; *Above average classes*, 7. *Average classes*, 7; *Below average classes*, 2; *Opportunity classes*, for non-defective backward pupils, 3; *Observation ungraded classes*, 15; *Nutrition class*, 1; *Neurotic class*, 1. The classification is based on individual examinations of 1000 pupils. The plan includes social cooperation, art and music, and health work, in addition to psychological and psychiatric examinations.—*Elizabeth A. Irwin*. *Canadian Journal of Mental Hygiene*, II-2, July 1920, pp. 186-192. (J. H. W.)

**The Organization of Child Welfare Work.** C. C. Carstens, of Boston, secretary of the Massachusetts Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children, has been appointed director of the Bureau for Exchange of Information among child helping organizations, financed by a four-year appropriation from the commonwealth fund. Membership includes 65 child caring agencies in the United States and Canada,

who have satisfactorily qualified under the organization requirements set by the bureau. Mr. Carstens assumes his duties as director January 1, 1921. Headquarters and a more suitable name for the bureau are yet to be determined.—*Educational News*. School and Society, XII-305, Oct. 30, 1920. pp. 399-400. (K.M.C.)

**The Scope and Aim of the Mental Hygiene Movement in Canada.** The Mental Hygiene Movement is attempting to solve the problems of individuals of normal or super-normal and abnormal mentality. The work among the "normals" and "super-normals" has to date been limited in Canada, probably because of the urgent need of work among the "abnormals." There is a need for investigating the capacity of the super-normal and educating them in a satisfactory manner. Those of abnormal mentality may be considered in relation to the social disorder, as crime, juvenile delinquency, illegitimacy, prostitution, spread of venereal disease, pauperism, unemployment, industrial unrest and inefficiency in educational institutions. The Mental Hygiene Movement aims to correct many mistakes of the past, to emphasize to the people and their governments the realization that brains are our greatest resource, and therefore deserving of primal consideration as to their conservation and improvement. *C. M. Hincks*. Canadian Journal of Mental Hygiene. I-1. Apr. 1919. pp. 20-29. (M. S. C.)

**Economy in Intelligence Classification.** All pupils in school should be classified on the basis of intelligence to save community expenditures, to save efforts expended by the teachers, and to produce greater efficiency in the educational program. Pupils should be rated by a group test and assigned to grades and sections on basis of ability in relation to actual age. Thereafter new pupils should be rated individually and assigned accordingly, giving special suitable opportunities to three groups, the bright, mediocre and duller pupils. Courses can become more adaptable to individual needs, richer courses for brighter pupils, better opportunity for the mediocre with the repeaters and plodders working by themselves not holding back faster workers. This plan should eliminate worry and attendant evils on the part of both pupils and teachers, producing better efficiency and progress.—*Garry C. Myers*. Educational Administration and Supervision, VI-6, Sept. 1920. pp. 309-312. (K. M. C.)

**The Use of Psychological Tests in the Vocational Guidance of High School Pupils.** With psychological and trade tests in their present stage their use is more effective in the selection of employees for a vocation than in selecting a vocation for a student. A given combination of abilities may mean possible successful participation in any one of a wide range of occupations. Fairly clearly defined levels of intelligence have been found for various occupational groups. Tabulation of 930 high school pupils' expressed vocational ambition and intelligence level indicate many cases where there is distinct difference between the student's ability and the level demanded for success in a chosen occupation. Guidance is needed for such cases as well as to turn the ambitions of the students into a wider variety of occupations. The conclusion is that sufficient progress has been made in the study of psychological tests as an aid in vocational guidance to justify their use in a negative way, that is, to point out what occupations a particular student should avoid. The tests may also help to satisfy a counsellor whether or not a given pu-



pil has the mental ability to engage in the vocation chosen, other factors conditioning success being present.—*W. M. Proctor*. *Journal of Educational Research*, II-2, Sept. 1920. pp. 533-546. (K. M. C.)

**Mental Tests and the High School.** High schools are enrolling a larger percentage of the available children of proper age and are thereby becoming more cosmopolitan. The part-time education law of California is holding some who otherwise would drop out. The larger population means more varied interests and calls for broader programs and curricula. Also the range of ability becomes greater and demands segregation. Determination of mental level is essential for proper segregation and for both vocational and educational guidance. Mental testing is rapidly taking its place as a tool to aid the administration in discipline, classification, promotion, educational and vocational guidance of pupils.—*Virgil E. Dickson*. *Sierra Educational News*, XVI-8, October 1920, pp. 481-3. (K. M. C.)

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## INSTITUTION REPORTS

**Colorado.** *State Industrial School for Boys*. Eighteenth Biennial Report, 1916. Fred. L. Paddelford, superintendent. Golden, Colorado. pp. 100.

In addition to physical improvements in the buildings and equipment, corporal punishment has been discontinued, boys have been permitted to talk at tables during meals except at the disciplinary tables, and a better and more-careful physical examination has been instituted during the biennial period. Fewer violations of parole are noted and are said by Supt. Paddelford to be attributed to better employment facilities. (W. W. C.)

**Minnesota.** *State Training School*. Biennial Report, 1918. John T. Fulton, superintendent. Red Wing, Minnesota. pp. 24.

This institution maintains a relatively high degree of individuation in the care of boys committed. In addition to medical and dental examinations, intelligence tests are regularly given by a qualified examiner. (See *Jour. Delinq.* July, 1920, for review of special study by Miss Marie M. Burmeister.) Certain anthropometric measurements and neuro-psychiatric tests are included in the research work of this school, and we shall wait with interest a statement concerning them. (W. W. C.)

**New Jersey.** *State Institution for Feeble Minded*. Thirty-first Annual Report, 1919. Madeleine A. Hallowell, medical director and superintendent. Vineland, New Jersey. pp. 61.

Among the interesting features of this report are (1) a descriptive resume of the development of the institution, (2) the program outlined to meet the administrative needs in caring for feeble-minded in New Jersey, and (3) the insistence of Dr. Hallowell on the value of research and the necessity of proper classification and segregation. The importance of scientific research into the obscure causes of feeble-mindedness "over-rules every plea in economy's name." Every patient should be given a thorough medico-psychological test in a well-equipped laboratory by an expert before being classified in an institution or any of its colonies. Differential diagnosis, especially in case of high grade patients and children, should

be made; and of great importance "in the diagnosis of each individual case, is the proper understanding of the family and personal history . . . especially in the borderline defective delinquent, or atypical type, in order to throw some light on the cause and extent of the influence of heredity on the present conditions."

(W. W. C.)

New Jersey. *State Prison*. Annual Report. 1920. J. H. Mulheron, principal keeper. Trenton, New Jersey. pp. 99.

An unusually valuable report of interest to students of delinquency and criminality is presented by this institution. In addition to the explaining of administrative methods in use and fostered by the state department of institution and agencies, a report of psychological examining by Dr. Edgar A. Doll is given. Based on Army Group Intelligence Test Alpha given to 839 prisoners, and on some individual examinations, Dr. Doll concludes that, "when allowance is made for selective influences on the basis of nationality and color, the mental constitution of the prison as a whole corresponds very closely to the average intelligence of adult males of the state as a whole." Following analysis of supplementary data relating to the prisoners, this study presents recommendations concerning educational and administrative policies and concerning the function of a prison psychologist. If the state of New Jersey carries out the program as outlined, it will doubtless soon attain an advanced position in prison management. (W. W. C.)



# The Journal of Delinquency

Volume VI

MARCH, 1921

Number 2

## EDUCATION OF JUVENILE DELINQUENTS

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Some time ago the writer promised the readers of this Journal to complete an unfinished series of articles, begun by him in collaboration with Mr. L. W. Crafts, by submitting a proposed plan of work for adapting the methods and procedures of clinical psychology to the problems of juvenile delinquency. Since then the writer has been personally concerned with developing a system of clinical psychology examining at the State Home for Boys at Jamesburg, New Jersey. The plans submitted in the present article are the outgrowth of the writer's original interest in the proportion of mental defectives among juvenile delinquents from the standpoint of feeble-mindedness, supplemented by two years of practical experience studying clinical problems and types from the standpoint of juvenile delinquency.

The present article is submitted in two parts. Part I describes types and outlines clinical procedures and methods. Part II presents a detailed system of education for juvenile delinquents so far as such a program can be formulated at the present time. The plans and the applications of results presented are immediately to be put in operation at the State Home for Boys at Jamesburg, New Jersey. It is thought that these recommendations have sufficiently general application to warrant their presentation as a working plan for other institutions. The procedures for the mental diagnosis and classification of delinquents are indispensable prerequisites to the educational program here presented.

### PART I. TYPES AND METHODS.

There are three principal intelligence groups among juvenile delinquent boys, namely: (1) the feeble-minded, (2) the borderline group, and (3) the average normal. There are comparatively few boys of superior intelligence in the typical state institution for delinquen

boys. At the State Home for Boys at Jamesburg, New Jersey, only 5 per cent of the boys exceed the median of mental age scores obtained by public school children of the same age. Not more than 2 per cent have intelligence superior to an ordinarily bright public school boy.

The *feeble-minded group* ordinarily comprises about 25 to 35 per cent of the total delinquent boy population, and is made up principally of morons. There are comparatively few cases whose mental ages are below 7 years. At the Jamesburg, New Jersey, State Home about 5 per cent of the total population are of the high-grade imbecile type, that is, are feeble-minded with mental ages of 7 years. An additional 10 per cent, approximately, are low-grade morons, that is, are feeble-minded with mental ages of 8 to 9 years. An additional 15 per cent, approximately, are middle-grade morons, that is, are feeble-minded with mental ages of 9 to 10 years. There follows an undetermined percentage of high-grade morons, the exact number being difficult to ascertain because of the present impossibility of making differential diagnosis on these high-grade types, by means of intelligence tests alone, and because of the scientific uncertainty of the other criteria.

The *borderline group* constitutes approximately 40 to 50 per cent of the usual juvenile reformatory population. This includes boys of low average intelligence who are otherwise classed as "normal." It includes some high-grade moron feeble-minded and a large number of borderline cases, that is, individuals who are not actually feeble-minded and yet are not entirely normal, boys who have some symptoms of feeble-mindedness and some of normality. It includes also a large number of boys who might be classed as "defective types." This includes various sorts of mental defect such as emotional instability, language defect, mild psychopathic condition and special mental disability. This group is variously designated as "defective delinquents" or "constitutional defectives" according to the standards and classification employed. These boys show marked social and educational deficiencies and constitute in large measure a recidivist group. In many cases no definite psychological peculiarity or abnormality or deficiency can be established except by prolonged observation and repeated examination, employing all means available.

The *average normal group* includes those boys who have fair average intelligence and no very marked mental defects. They are boys



of no great hereditary endowment mentally and of limited educational opportunity. They generally constitute about a fourth of the total population. They have a fair degree of learning capacity both educational and vocational. They are good material to work with and in most cases are returnable to society with a marked prospect of success. In most cases their principal need is home training and personal discipline. Compared with the rest of the institutional population they are relatively high in intelligence, but when compared with public school boys of the same age they are of only fair average intelligence.

The *superior group*, as has been stated, is comparatively small. Not more than 2 per cent of the Jamesburg, New Jersey, State Home boys have the degree of intelligence shown by every fourth public school child. That is, the mental age scores obtained by the brightest 25 per cent of public school boys are equaled by not more than two per cent of boys at Jamesburg. But while this group is relatively small its members are the most hopeful boys for full return to normal social life.

#### FIELDS OF INQUIRY

In order adequately to distinguish these several types it is very important that each institution for juvenile delinquents establish a clinic for conducting standard diagnostic psychological examinations. The procedures of clinical psychology are now fairly well established. A large variety of tests and methods are available, but to apply them requires equipment and apparatus and time. Observation and repeated examinations are particularly important for the differentiations of the borderline types, especially in view of the fact that these types are the greatest source of difficulty with respect to discipline and education. The various procedures to be employed may be outlined as follows:

1. *Delinquency record.* A complete and accurate account of the delinquency committed by each boy, and of the details and circumstances surrounding it, is of first interest and importance in each case. While this is no necessary part of the clinical diagnosis it furnishes the point of departure and serves to indicate the causes of delinquency as well as the type, which in turn furnish sidelights on the mental make-up of the individual. In the typical institution such information is not ordinarily available except as it may be obtained from the boys themselves or through the report of the field and home investigation. Since the statements of the boys themselves can-

not be taken at face value, a field investigation is essential. This report should cover all details of the delinquency, both predisposing and actual, and should include a transcript of the court records.

2. *Home investigation.* Second in importance are the facts regarding the family history, home environment and personal developmental history of each boy. When complete the reports of these investigations furnish information regarding the social and ancestral antecedents of each boy. They indicate the type of mentality to be expected, and the social and educational advantages or disadvantages which have surrounded the boys, thus serving to account in some measure for specific mental abilities or disabilities. They also furnish the environmental causes which influence mental development and the delinquencies committed. They describe the social influences, such as home discipline, school training, church influences, associations, amusements, and the like, which play such important parts in juvenile delinquency. These investigations also should give information concerning any previous delinquencies of each boy, whether these delinquencies have led to commitment in a correctional institution or whether they have led to suspended sentence. In many cases boys have frequently been delinquent before coming into the courts or before being committed to an institution.

3. *Psychological examination.* The psychological examination proper includes both group mental tests and mental tests to be administered individually. The group tests have the advantage of economy and speed. They are very satisfactory in furnishing a survey of the institutional group as a whole and very quickly yield approximate mental ages for large groups of individuals. The results, however, should not be employed except for group classification until supplemented by individual examinations. The group tests may be language tests or non-language tests, preferably both. If both types of group tests cannot be employed the non-language tests are relatively more important because of the large number of practical illiterates usually encountered, and because of the large number of boys who have specific language disability. Such a test as the Army Group Test Alpha will be found successful for the brighter half of the population. It has been proved inadequate for the measurement of the duller half. Non-language group tests which are true measures of intelligence are hard to obtain, although many such scales are now being devised and standardized. For the present the most satisfactory such scale, in our opinion, is the Pintner non-lan-



guage survey scale. The Pressey Primer Scale is suitable for very young or for low-grade subjects. The Myers Mental Measure may prove adequate. The Army Group Test Beta has certain disadvantages, but it is generally suitable.

The *Stanford Revision of the Binet-Simon Scale* should be applied in full to all boys whose group test mental ages are below 12 years. An abbreviated form of this scale may be applied to the boys whose mental ages in the group test are above 12 years. It is to be noted that the Binet Scale in addition to furnishing a mental age score is the most comprehensive single psychological examination which is now available for diagnostic purposes. Because of the mixed nature of the tests which comprise the scale, the Binet examination throws a great deal of light upon the specific mental abilities and disabilities of each case. While this scale is made up principally of language tests it also includes a fair number of tests where the comprehension of language is of secondary importance and where performance is of much weight. This examination also reveals defects of memory, judgment, reasoning, comprehension and emotional type. It should be supplemented by non-verbal or "performance" test.

The *Porteus motor intelligence tests* should be applied whenever possible. Certain boys who may obtain high scores in the group tests or in the Binet test may prove to have low intelligence when examined by the Porteus tests, and many boys whose intelligence is low in the verbal tests frequently score high in the Porteus tests. These exceptional cases are numerous and important. Moreover, the Porteus tests seem to furnish a reliable estimate of industrial capacity and of temperamental type. They specially indicate such qualities of intelligence as ability to plan, strength of inhibitions and carefulness of execution. In addition to these advantage the Porteus tests yield a mental age score in terms of practical social efficiency as opposed to the intellectual efficiency revealed by the Binet tests.

*Performance tests* are particularly important. An astonishingly high percentage of delinquent boys have specific language deficiency which amounts to special mental defect. Ordinarily this disability is not merely the result of nationality or environment, but is associated with defects of hearing, inattention, indifference and some indefinite types of mental defect or deficiency. These language defects are readily revealed by vocabulary tests, association tests or tests of abstract comprehension and reasoning. They are not so

evident in ordinary conversation. The boys are able to converse easily on concrete topics but show very little ability in abstract verbal comprehension. It is therefore necessary to employ such tests as are available for measuring intelligence independently of language, for example, the Goddard or the Witmer modifications of the Norsworthy form-board, the Dearborn form-boards, the tests of Healy, Pintner, Knox, Fernald and many others. It will be necessary to make a careful selection from the large number of such tests which are now available. This selection will necessarily be based upon experiences and research with these tests and the local problems and types of the institution. It must be ascertained that the tests chosen do actually measure intelligence and not specific abilities, unless indeed they are purposely chosen for the determination of the presence or absence of particular mental traits. They are usually used to measure general intelligence without the medium of language, but may be employed for the measurement of specific abilities. In this connection it will undoubtedly be possible to adapt the special tests which were used in the Army for the individual examination of illiterate recruits. It may also be possible to select the best single tests from group performance scales which have already been developed. In using performance tests the emphasis should be placed on learning rather than on first reactions.

*Association tests* are particularly important because of the abnormal emotional states and abnormal mental processes which are frequently encountered in delinquent boys. Many initial psychopathic states are uncovered by the judicious application of the association tests. These tests are also a guide to the language facility of the individual and his degree of general intelligence. The Kent-Rosanoff association test has been standardized both for adults and children on normal and defective groups and should by all means be employed. Various other forms of association tests have also been developed by Whipple and others, a particularly good group being the one employed by McCall.

*Tests of learning capacity* are also important. The Woodworth and Wells association tests are of considerable value for this purpose as well as for measuring associative capacity. Other learning tests are those developed by Freeman, Starch, Whipple, Thorndike and others and are described in the literature of psychological tests. Tests of habit-formation and re-learning are also particularly important. A study of Mitchell's bibliography of mental tests will indicate the sources.



4. *Anthropometric measurements.* One of the very striking things about delinquent boys in the typical institution is their physical inferiority and unusual cranial formations. The typical boy is undersized and undernourished. Results obtained by Porteus indicate that in head measurements also these boys are inferior to public school boys of the same ages. It is highly desirable that physical and cephalometric measurements be made in conjunction with the psychological examination. This is a field of work which falls between the psychologist and the physician. Inasmuch as certain physical measurements are a regular part of clinical psychological examining, it is proper for the clinical psychologist to make these measurements, or at any rate to utilize them for diagnostic purposes if they are made by the physician. Some years ago a group of six simple physical and psychological measurements, namely, standing height, sitting height, weight, strength of right grip, strength of left grip, and lung capacity were standardized at Vineland as an auxiliary method of diagnosing feeble-mindedness and borderline mental types. These measurements are not only valuable as serving to indicate the degree of physical development and functional physical capacity of children, but they also have a diagnostic value in differentiating mental types. For these reasons it is highly desirable that at least these physical measurements be employed as a regular part of each boy's examination. In addition it is very important to determine the cranial content or brain capacity of each boy. This can be done by a set of three simple measurements of cranial volume, the results of which can be compared with standard tables prepared by Dr. S. D. Porteus. These cephalometric measurements have diagnostic value under certain conditions and are in every case of importance in determining physical peculiarities. Like the other physical measurements they might be made either by the physician or by the psychologist as might be most expedient. Since the clinical psychologist is presumed to be skilled in making these measurements and has direct use for them in connection with the mental diagnosis, it seems desirable that he should make them provided he has the time and facilities. Repeated anthropometric measurements are of great value and should be conducted for the sake of determining the rate of physical growth and the amount of physical improvement which takes place while a boy is under the institutional regime.

5. *Educational measurements.* In conjunction with the psychological examination it is important to determine the degree of educa-

tional attainment which each boy has achieved. The psychological examination cannot be adequately interpreted without knowledge of the school history and educational ability of the boy under examination. The school history in itself is of great importance and should be considered a part of the home and field investigation. The degree of school attainment can be successfully measured by means of any of the standard educational tests or groups of tests now employed for that purpose. It is hardly necessary to detail the nature and scope of these tests at this point. Special tests of all the fundamentals of school information should be employed. A good group test for quickly measuring school attainments has been devised and standardized by Pintner. The Monroe reading tests, the Courtis arithmetic tests, the Buckingham spelling tests, the Ayres handwriting scale, the Thorndike reading tests, the Bonser reasoning tests and so on might be employed to good advantage. The recent methods developed by Pressey are especially promising. Any of the several standard works on educational measurements will furnish the technique and standards. This work might be carried on as a direct part of the psychological examination or might properly be done in conjunction with the academic school department. In any case the measurements should be made and should be available to the psychologist for interpretation.

6. *Vocational tests.* In the present state of psychological examining it is not possible to make completely satisfactory tests of vocational aptitudes. At the present time it is possible only to estimate vocational predispositions on the basis of general intelligence and specific mental traits. A few tests of manual skill have been tried out but no very satisfactory published procedures are at present available. Trade tests are rapidly being devised. The construction tests of Kelly might be employed or the mechanical tests developed by Stenquist. A resourceful psychologist will be able to adapt many of the children's toys such as Erector building sets or Tinkertoys as a means of measuring constructive ability and manual dexterity. The Gilbert toys are also very valuable for this purpose and might serve as a basis for estimating degree of skill in some of the specialized vocations such as tinsmithing, electrical repair work, telegraphy, and so on. It should be a part of the local research program of the psychologist at each institution to develop an adequate method of procedure for scientifically determining vocational aptitudes by means of direct vocational tests. It should also be one of



his duties to invent or adapt trade tests for the purpose of measuring progress under vocational instruction, and to assist in the vocational classification and assignments. In this connection the psychologist will need to make a survey of all institutional industries and vocations with a view to developing a psychological classification of all possible assignments to work or study.

7. *Medical examination.* At the present time the type of report of medical examinations which is usually available to the psychologist is not of much practical value to him. The routine reports of resident physicians usually cover only general health and physical defects. It is essential that a report of the nervous condition with special reference to reflexes be available. Complete reports should also be made concerning the condition of the teeth, eyes, ears, nose and throat. Specific reference should be made with respect to teeth and tonsils and gastrointestinal conditions. Any specific organic or anatomical defects should be revealed and focal infections or toxic disturbances disclosed. A careful examination of the glands of internal secretion is highly desirable in many cases. In other words the medical examination should be so broad in scope as to cover more than conditions of health only. The psychological results can seldom be interpreted adequately in the absence of thorough neurological and physiological examinations. These aspects of the medical examination are, of course, not a part of the psychologist's duties. The physician and psychologist should, however, work in very close cooperation in this respect.

8. *Psychiatric examination.* A routine psychiatric examination should be made on all cases. It is preferable to have the psychiatric examination made by a psychopathologist independently of the psychological examination. The psychiatrist, however, will want to know the degree of mental development of his cases and the psychologist will need to be assured that there is no pathological condition either mental or physical which invalidates his results or influences their interpretation. The psychologist and psychiatrist must therefore work in close cooperation, but it is possible to delimit their field of service. This delimitation can best be worked out on a personal basis between the men who are doing the work, because the fields overlap each other.

## PART II. USE OF RESULTS.

In order to make the results of psychological examining function in the daily life of institutions for delinquent boys, it is of primary

importance to organize cottage classifications on the basis of general intelligence and temperamental traits as found by the mental tests. Ordinarily, too little attention is paid to the mental characteristics of the boys in making cottage assignments. In some institutions, for example the Whittier State School, it has been thoroughly demonstrated that a classification of institutional inmates on the basis of intelligence, temperamental traits, and personal habits, is a very practical means of assisting institutional administration. When cottage groups are of the same general intelligence, capabilities and interests, an *esprit de corps* is thereby developed which is of particular value in a correctional institution. Moreover, such a classification furnishes homogeneous groups for the purposes of education, industrial training and discipline, thereby simplifying routine and increasing the efficiency of care and training.

It is particularly important to segregate the feeble-minded. The custodial types should be transferred to institutions for the feeble-minded. The trainable feeble-minded can be organized as units within the institution and these units can then be trained in the institution under the same principles of care and training which are now successfully employed in the institutions for the feeble-minded and in the special classes in some large cities. The institutional control of these cases is very much simplified by the segregation. Moreover, such a grouping furnishes an eloquent appeal for providing ultimately custodial supervision for these cases. The custodial feeble-minded should be organized as a colony adjunct to the institution if transfer is impossible.

This reclassification of the inmates might easily and quickly be effected by a committee appointed by the superintendent, consisting of the superintendent as chairman, the principal disciplinary officer, the matron, the vocational and educational director, the resident physician, the psychiatrist and the psychologist. A temporary reclassification could be made by such a committee in a comparatively short time and such errors as might be made could subsequently be corrected as a matter of daily routine.

#### EDUCATIONAL APPLICATIONS

In addition to being of service in the cottage classification of an institution, psychological results are of course of vital importance to the educational and vocational departments. Here, also, radical reorganization of the institutional facilities and procedures must ordinarily be brought about before the psychological results can have any



great practical significance. In the interest of assisting this reorganization with respect to the mental limitations of the inmates, the following suggestions are submitted:

1. All activities in which the boys take part must be primarily educational. Ideally, no boy should be engaged at any occupation or assignment which has for him no instruction value. This must not be interpreted to mean that the boys should be prohibited from work which has productive or commercial value. It does not mean that the boys may not be engaged in operations which are of distinct material value to the institution. It means that at all times the material welfare and economic interests of the institution should as much as possible be subordinated to the educational interests of the boys themselves.

2. To bring this about we may recognize five distinct branches of education and training, namely: (1) academic studies, (2) hand work, (3) agricultural training, (4) trade-vocational training, and (5) industrial work. In the case of feeble-minded boys the first and fourth of these classes of instruction may profitably be omitted. The typical feeble-minded have no very great aptitude or practical necessity for academic instruction. Moreover, these feeble-minded will in all probability have previously received the full benefit of such instruction in the public schools. Similarly, there is very little prospect for practical success on the part of the feeble-minded in trade-vocations. The degree of responsibility and skill required for such work is lacking in all but the highest types of the feeble-minded. The very high-grade morons might, however, profit in some degree from this instruction. On the other hand, the feeble-minded will be found successful even if to a limited degree in simple manual agricultural and industrial operations. For them, however, this work must be differentiated in that it should have more drill work and may be almost wholly productive. The feeble-minded learn not so much from instruction as from actual doing or by imitation. They learn best by repetition and drill instead of by direct teaching.

3. For all boys it is essential that there be a correlation of instruction in these five branches. This can be accomplished by copying the Gary system with such modifications and adaptations as are necessary under local circumstances. It can also be effected by the project method of teaching and by the so-called departmental system of instruction. The projects should in every case be linked up with the social life of the institution. As far as possible they should orig-

inate among the boys themselves, aided perhaps by suggestions tactfully offered by officers of the institution. For example, let us say that it is desirable for the boys to have a baseball grandstand or bleachers. The supervisor of recreation suggests this desirability to some leaders among the boys and "puts it up to them" to devise ways and means. Permission is obtained from a committee of the boys to use some old lumber about the place or to undertake extra work with compensation to buy the lumber. A class of boys from the trade-vocational carpenter group undertakes the work, employing as helpers a class of the construction and repair group in woodwork manual training. For the time being all of the academic work of the boys so engaged hinges upon this project. Problems in arithmetic relate to the various calculations which are necessary in estimating the amount of lumber required and its cost, in laying out the diamond and calculating its area, and so on. The instruction in reading follows along similar lines. The sources of lumber furnish the topic for the class in commercial topics. And so in similar ways all the other work of these groups for the time being is enlivened and motivated by the project in hand. Many such projects may be carried out simultaneously and may be a means of emulation and competition.

4. The academic instruction may profitably be divided into four classes, one for reading, including history, geography and commercial topics; a second for arithmetic; a third for writing, spelling and composition; and a fourth for biology or nature study. These classes may be divided into grades as may be expedient according to the number and types of children assigned to them, and the character of the work carried on.

The handwork or manual training may be divided into two major sections, one for woodwork and the other for general mechanical handwork. The woodwork in turn may be subdivided into one subsection of repairs and minor construction work, and a second subsection for making toys and odd bits of furniture. All the woodwork should be as much as possible in soft wood and not hardwood. Much of the material may be obtained from scrap lumber about the place, or packing boxes. We are reminded of a feeble-minded boy who, of his own initiative and entirely by himself constructed two chicken coops from odd lots of scrap lumber which he was allowed to use, these chicken coops subsequently serving as a point of departure for later work in raising chickens. This boy subsequently became the



poultryman's principal assistant in his institution. Similarly, the mechanical work should be presented in the nature of small repairs. For example, superficial repairs to the plumbing systems might be taken care of, such as putting new washers in faucets, or making simple connections; in the electrical system such work could be done as repairing switches and bells, replacing batteries and fuses, and doing the simpler sorts of wiring; tinsmithing repairs could be made such as simple soldering of leaky vessels or connections. All this work of the manual training group should be in charge of instructor-journeymen, men who are skilled at these different trades and at the same time are competent to instruct in such work. It should be emphasized that all of this work is for the purpose of concrete manual instruction. Its ultimate purpose is not necessarily trade training. It has a moral and cultural value in developing a spirit of cooperation and helpfulness and in providing a means of self-expression in a group of children who are not competent to progress very far in trade work. It may, however, form the stages preparatory to trade-vocational instruction. Work of this character is now being successfully carried on in most of the better types of special classes through the country.

Aside from this utilitarian or practical manual training, much valuable instruction may be imparted by means of construction toys and building equipments of various sorts. Simple toys and small pieces of simple house furnishings may also be constructed. Inventiveness, originality, and initiative may be stimulated in this way, leading systematically to more practical forms of manual activity.

6. The agricultural instruction may be divided into three sections; biology, horticulture and animal husbandry. This instruction should prove to be of great moral and educational value to the boys. It can easily be adapted to their interests and will probably give them quite a new point of view. It should be given in close connection with the nature study classes in the academic school, serving, indeed, as field or laboratory work for these classes. The horticultural work might be conducted under the supervision of the division of agricultural education of the state department of education in those states which furnish expert supervision to educational institutions which undertake agricultural instruction. Lacking such supervision, however, this work could be handled satisfactorily by a farmer-instructor, that is, a man of practical farm experience with interest and ability as a teacher. The animal husbandry should prove to be one

of the most attractive lines of instruction. Its field of interest will include the care of stock and poultry. The lessons in animal husbandry will in all probability be favorites among the boys. If properly administered they will furnish an excellent opportunity for developing individual responsibility. Particular animals or groups of animals may be assigned to individual boys, and their pride and emulation be developed by stimulating forms of competition. In all the agricultural work contests may be suggested and prizes offered to those boys who produce the best results, thus furnishing local news items for the institution's paper and leading to closer institutional cooperation and loyalty.

7. The trade-vocational instruction should be developed for the older and more capable boys with a view to preparing them for definite trades outside the institution. This instruction in the successive stages of certain selected trades should be taught according to a definite time schedule, possibly with remuneration for those boys whose work has a practical value. The various degrees of aptitude and interests displayed under instruction should serve as guides for assignment to such instruction. Trade-vocational work should follow manual handwork which should have been developed as preparatory to the trade vocational instruction for those competent to profit from vocational instruction. Much choice might be exercised in selecting the particular trades. Those which seem to us most practical and feasible under the circumstances are carpentry, plumbing, electrical repairs, tinsmithing, laundry, janitor service, cooking, waiting, clerical work and printing. Others might be suggested or some of these eliminated. Here again, the work should be under the instruction of particularly competent instructor-journeymen who not only have a high degree of skill in their own trades but are familiar with allied trades and are competent to instruct. Emphasis must be placed upon the instruction value of all the trade-vocational undertakings. It is not, however, inconsistent with the efficiency of such instruction to have it yield definite commercial products.

8. There will be certain types of boys whom it is difficult to instruct in any way except by actual work. There will be other boys ready to "graduate" from vocational work. Such boys may learn a great deal by being associated with the industrial work of the institution. There will also be advanced classes in the various groups of work above described who will profit from the discipline offered by the requirements of industrial work, that is, by work which yields a



marketable or profitable return. Great care, however, must be exercised to see that no boy is assigned to industrial work merely to support the institution, except as discipline or critical needs make it necessary. Each boy should be kept at work which has for him an instruction value as long as he possesses any capacity for profiting from such instruction. Just as soon, however, as a boy has reached his instruction limit in one or more trade specialties it is proper and even desirable to place him for a time at work which demands constant application and steady effort for a definite product.

9. Throughout all the various types of training and study in the institution it is of great importance that all instruction be as concrete as possible. It will be necessary for the instructors to avoid any attempt to develop general principles or to teach by abstract theorems. The instruction must always be inductive rather than deductive, that is, it must lead logically and naturally from practical experiences to general principles. It must not lead the other way, that is, from accepted abstract generalizations or established principles to particular applications. Copious blackboard instruction and plenty of concrete illustrative material should at all times be used. The work must at all times be vitalized by appealing to the daily interests and personal experiences of the boys. It should also be planned with a view to developing the moral and spiritual forces which now may be lying dormant in these boys. A great deal can be accomplished by developing loyalty toward cottage units and toward the institution as a whole.

#### APPLICATION TO PAROLE

In addition to being of value as a basis for cottage classification and school organization, the results of the psychological tests will be important when applied to boys on parole or about to be paroled. The environmental placement of boys should consider the mental capacities and traits of each boy as well as the physical environment to which the boy is to be returned. Social adaptation is a constant interaction between the individual and his environment. If the environment is simple, the individual need not have superior intelligence, but if the demands of the environment are complex, then the individual must have superior intelligence in order to succeed. The results obtained by the psychologist, therefore, should be available to the parole department of the institution, which should be in a position to make valuable use of them. The community or environment to which an individual boy is to be paroled must be considered

in relation to his mental abilities. Similarly, the demands which will be made upon the boy while on parole should be in relation to his mental and physical abilities and disabilities. In general it is found that the brighter boys have the better chance of being successful on parole. More can be expected or demanded from them. If they fail on parole their responsibility for such failure is greater than that of mental defectives who fail. On the other hand mere feeble-mindedness is not a sufficient excuse for failure. Temperamental stability seems to be equally important with general intelligence as the determining factor in parole success.

There will be other uses of the psychological results, according to the character and problems of the local institution. The relation of these results to discipline and formation of social and industrial habits is very great. However, these applications are so specific that it seems hardly necessary to present them in detail.



# THE IMPORTANCE OF PHYSICAL AND MENTAL EXAMINATIONS AS AN AID TO TREATMENT AND TRAINING IN A REFORM INSTITUTION\*

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A year ago Dr. McCord read a paper before this conference, from the standpoint of science, on the physical and mental condition of delinquent boys, presenting a survey of an experiment at the Berkshire Industrial Farm by which the value of psychopathic examinations in an institution was demonstrated. Taking as a motto that "public health is purchasable," Dr. McCord pointed out that, in the field of crime, the modern method of prevention by examination and study of the individual is better than the former remedial measures which do not cure. Today my paper, written from the standpoint of the institution, attempts to show the practical value to all those dealing with reform school children of a complete diagnosis of their make-up.

It should be first understood that the problem of handling reform school children is much complicated by the presence of the feeble-minded,—inmates who require special management and who tend to lower the standards of education in any community of children. If there is any doubt as to the nature of the children coming to a reform school, let me read a letter, received less than two weeks ago, from an agent of a juvenile court regarding a boy committed to us by that court.

Dear Mr. Hilliard:

R. .... S. .... was committed to Berkshire on February 24th, 1920 by Justice X. We have been following this boy since May 14th, 1919, when he was arraigned in the Children's Court, being implicated in the larceny of a quantity of food, as a result of which he was placed on probation. The boy was born on Jan. 9th, 1907. He has been attending Public School No. 90, where he was in the 2B class. He is undoubtedly mentally defective although we have no record of an examination having been made. We sent him to Princeton Camp on July 28th, 1919, and he stayed there only three days, when he was sent home for chronic disobedience. While at camp he was involved with three other boys who broke into a farm house, ransacked it and stole \$2.00. On this occasion S. .... was em-

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\*Read before the Capital District Conference of Charities and Corrections in Albany, March 10, 1920.

ployed as the look-out as he was when arrested in May. S----- had also given trouble in camp by using the rowboat three times without permission, being reprimanded each time. The latest cause of complaint is, last week he was out of school four days and the week before five days and the week before five days, during which time he was sleeping in a moving van. I fear that you will not be able to accomplish very much with him, but wish you good luck.

Sincerely yours, etc.

It cannot be pointed out too often nor too strongly that these feeble-minded children, and indeed the children of borderline deficiency and emotional instability, should be examined before, rather than after, commitment, as it is conclusively proved that they do not belong in a community of delinquent children of more nearly normal mentality. These defectives are not necessarily delinquent, except from inability to take care of themselves in any social group. Their nature and inclinations, under proper supervision and training, may be amiable and orderly. They do, however, need supervision and special training. In a community of perverse boyhood, mental defectives appear more in the light of patients than subjects for discipline. They literally "don't know any better," and can't learn any better. Since mental and physical tests are not generally applied before commitment, the next best thing is to employ them in the institution. These tests show the need of segregation. Such segregation, while difficult to accomplish and likely to spoil the home-like aspects of an institution, must be supplied in some form, if not actually in separating one group of children from another, at least in positive association of groups for work, play, and schooling, so that without conspicuous classification, hurtful to individual pride, the children of feeble mentality will be thrown with those who will do them least harm, and who in turn will receive least harm from contact with the feeble-minded. In this connection it may be proper to point out what, to us, seems like a harmful system in some institutions,—that of segregating some of the inmates in one dwelling and some in another according to behavior, and openly declaring these cottages to be respectively, the one an "honor cottage," the other a "disciplinary cottage." This is objectionable on the principle that if you formally notify a child under discipline that he is classed as a troublesome case, instead of stirring his pride to better things, as intended, it frequently causes in him a wicked desire to act the part. There is an advantage in establishing an atmosphere of equality among your children, an unconsciousness of any differentiation whether on account of mentality or of behavior, though as has been



stated before the segregation may be quietly carried on without the knowledge of the child. A democratic confidence should be sought, which works reciprocally between staff and inmates, taking the form among the staff of an assurance expressed that the children are deserving of confidence, and among the inmates of an equal assurance that each is trusted and is entitled to that trust.

Having clearly in mind, then, that the institution must reckon upon at least ten per cent, often more, of children of the non-reformable type, who will ultimately be subjects for permanent custodial care, we now proceed to apply the findings of the psychopathic examinations. Medical and surgical treatment for bodily ailments, such as defects of eyes, ears, throat, nose, teeth, stooped shoulders, spinal curvature, and the like, are our first consideration. While it takes no psychiatrist to bring to light these defects, the fact that they are brought to our attention with reference to their bearing upon the neurological, psychological, and sociological conditions of the case, is the important and instructive thing. Having corrected the bodily ailments as far as our means and facilities of equipment permit, we next proceed to place the boy in that group of older or younger children, where, according to the diagnosis, he is likely to do best, both for himself and for the other inmates. This will depend largely upon the sexual condition of the child and the recommendation made on that score by the doctor's examination. The inmate's work is then considered. If he is a child of that type which demands that manual work be stressed, or the reverse, if he is declared to be lazy, a "bluffer," or in need of having his work checked up and supervised, these things should be pointed out to the instructor to whom the child is assigned. The teacher is next given a copy of the psychopathic summary. It is of prime importance to her, as well as to the boy and those governing the boy, by whom discipline will be administered, to know just what may be expected of him in his school work. If he is feeble-minded or of border-line deficiency and of unstable nature, the teacher will not stress school work, but will, according to the psychopathic recommendations, provide schoolroom substitutes for book work, in the nature of manual employment adapted to the child's interests. If on the other hand our diagnosis shows that the child is of good mentality, but lazy, his school work will be pushed. Every incentive to ambitious and zealous work along intellectual lines will be furnished. These are the features of helpfulness which an expert psychologist can afford to the teacher,

and the help is as much for the boy of bright mind as for the mental defective. More than this, the teacher cultivates that understanding heart which forbids wasted effort of patience and discipline in seeking to accomplish the impossible, and at the same time encourages study of the child's peculiar disabilities in order to apply the right kind of training. Along these lines, endless clashes are avoided, brought on by the oldtime schoolroom methods, whereby all children were made to conform to certain standards of behavior and scholarship, whether within reach of their mentality and disposition or not. Further than this, there is an avoidance of those serious cases calling for stern discipline which are the disgrace of all schools into which disciplinarians are driven when they follow the rule of administering the law and not of seeking to understand the cause of misdemeanor. It will be observed that the same principle holds within an institution as in the world at large in this question of handling delinquents and criminals. Our most important rule to follow is to study the individual to trace the origin of his act, so as to bring corrective measures to bear upon the cause and not upon the individual. This is the doctrine of prevention, which is steadily forcing itself upon the intelligence of all educators, and particularly reform educators, not to speak of those who discriminate in the course as to the disposition of an offender's future way of life.

In order, however, to understand exactly the nature of the psychopathic examinations and how they suggest lines of helpfulness, let me present a single case, taken at random quoting from the summary, the data given with recommendations. The case is that of a boy, thirteen years of age, of dull-normal intelligence, with an intelligence quotient of .84.

"L. A. has a mild chronic inflammation of the eyes with some eye fatigue and considerable nervous irritability; he suffers from nasal catarrh and has several decayed teeth. Circumcision is indicated from the standpoint of personal hygiene. Physically he is almost a year retarded."

It needs no argument to make clear the obvious advantage of attention drawn to the condition of the boy's eyes, nose and teeth and that there is nervous irritability. Let us bear this in mind for that time when the boy comes into conflict with his fellows or with his teacher. Before exercising discipline let us make haste to correct the causes of his troubles, and to have eyes, nose and teeth treated. This is no more than we should do for a kicking horse. Furthermore, to take



advantage of these findings all those persons handling the boy's activities should be acquainted with his condition. I say *should* because I know full well the practical difficulties in accomplishing this. Our ideal, however, would be to educate the staff to an intelligent understanding and a humane consideration of each boy's limitations.

Pursuing the summary, the Wasserman reaction gives "positive" (one—plus, of doubtful significance); later a negative. In this case no action need be taken to safeguard us against the appearance of any blood taint. In cases, however, where we have positive reaction, we have the boy removed to some hospital for treatment or else re-committed to another institution.

The *psychological survey* gives us the following: "Mentally the boy presents a difficult problem. He ranks as a dull-normal in intelligence, but his lack of emotional control places him amongst the troublesome class of affective deviates—that is, either through his defective nervous system or because of lack of discipline from early childhood, he has never developed the ordinary habits of self-control and selective action; but instead reacts along the line of primitive instincts and presents more or less the problem of the animal who has not developed the sentiment side of the personality. His visual memory is quite good, but he is weak in auditory memory. His school work will probably be most discouraging. He is limited in the language field. He has very little moral appreciation and must be reached largely through the sensorial side—that is, his own comfort, convenience, etc., must be affected before many things will fasten his attention as desirable unless they are capable of ministering directly to his own selfish desires. He has little power to reason from cause to effect. He is possessed with a fair degree of worldly shrewdness, but is lazy and untruthful.

"If possible he should be subordinated to older boys who have a well developed sense of honor and are not suggestible or easily led. A large amount of physical activity should be required of him and for a couple of years at least, book work should not be stressed. There is a pronounced tendency to uncontrolled behavior. He refused to have the blood taken for the Wasserman test, affected to cry and make a great noise. At a subsequent visit after discipline by the boys, he submitted."

Here is a study which will help anyone dealing with the boy if he takes the time to examine it closely and to apply the comments to the boy's case. Such a boy we shall be inclined to place under the influ-

ence of some kind person who understands boys and who will give the right spur and appropriate sympathy as needed. This boy will be watched in his social relations and placed with those inmates who will help him most. Encouragement will be given towards overcoming selfishness. Ideals and opportunities for self sacrifice will be presented. Experiences offering endurance and hardship will be promoted. His work will be supervised and his statements checked up. In school his teacher will seek to present things in a concrete fashion and will help the boy to control himself.

The summary continuing gives us as *developmental and sociological data*: "He was committed to the Farm May 6, 1918. Father and mother have been separated for years. He was at the house of detention. Older sister has kept house for the father. He has been in court for stealing, truancy, and malicious mischief."

The *prognosis* is "poor. He should remain at the Farm and receive further study."

The *recommendations* are: "His eyes should be refracted; his teeth should be repaired and his nasal catarrh treated; he should be circumcised; a large amount of physical activity should be required of him and for a couple of years at least abstract book work should not be stressed. He should remain at the Farm until he is at least eighteen. He should receive further study and should preferably be associated with boys of his own age or older. His tendency to uncontrolled behavior and his emotional instability should be kept in mind at all times."

Here we have a complete case. The boy has been with us now a little less than two years. He has become a healthy fellow, has gained weight and is an animated, cheerful, natural boy in excellent social relations with his fellows, lazy as predicted both in work and in school. His uncontrolled behavior has been largely reduced. His physical ailments have been attended to and he would be classed to-day by the uninitiated at least as a very promising boy. From our standpoint he is doing well, but we have in mind the psychological recommendations that the case needs further study and that the outlook is poor. There will, therefore, be no thought of sending the boy to his home which it will be remembered is a broken one, and if he received his discharge the circumstance of his case will be called to the attention of those who sent him to us. We await the time however, when our work will connect itself efficiently with the next stage of supervision, whether that of further custodial care or a plac-



ing out system embracing adequate parole.

While it may be said that the same information as to a boy's physical defects can be secured from an ordinary physician, it must be remembered as noted before, that the value of the psychopathic work comes in the combination of the combined report embodying the information regarding the boy's whole make-up and giving us a complete study with recommendations. There is much to be done, it is true, before such psychopathic work in an institution is properly digested and this will necessitate an educative campaign in the staff and provision of time and means whereby such information is available for study and use.

There is doubt in the mind of some as to what really is meant by a study of the individual, especially when it comes to such a complex thing as a boy. Until recently the public has looked upon the institutional child with indifference and mild repugnance, or else with sentimentality. The child has suffered as much from unintelligent pity as it has from neglect. In recent years we have had a call for an understanding heart. Science supplies the understanding, reform education must furnish the heart. Both science and art stretch out hands of helpfulness to the young, the one purposing to examine his nature and needs, the other endeavoring to treat those needs and train those natures. Let us think of science and art as working thus strongly together and instead of clashing with different points of view, seeking to supplement each other's efforts in supplying the needs of the child.

In closing I should like to refer to a noble passage in some of the writings of Phillips Brooks where he says, "I think that nobody can speak with the best power who is not possessed with a sense of the mysteriousness of the human life to which he speaks. It must seem to him capable of indefinite enlargement and refinement. He must see it in each new person as something original and new. This must be something which belongs to his whole conception of man as the child of God. It must not be the mere inspiration of his whim attributed in great richness to some lives which chance to take his fancy but ignored in others. He must see it in all men simply as men. When he undertakes to lead them he must feel the mystery and spontaneity of the lives that he takes under his teaching. He must be a careful student of the characters he trains. He cannot carry people over the route of his ministry as a ferryman carries passengers across the river, always running his boat in the same line and never even ask-

ing the names of the people whom he carries. He must count himself rather like a tutor of a family of princes, who, with careful study of their several dispositions, trains the royal nature of each for the special kingdoms over which he is to rule."



## IRREGULARITY IN INTELLIGENCE TESTS OF DELINQUENTS

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S. L. Pressey in a recent study of irregularity on a Binet examination<sup>1</sup> uses the Stanford-Binet Scale stating the scattering in terms of the number of "month's worth" of success or failure in any given age group multiplied by the number of test groups which that success or failure is away from the mental age obtained. To use his illustration: A child with a mental age of 9 years 8 months failed one test at 6, one at 7, 2 at 8, 1 at 9. Passed 1 at 12, none at 14 and 1 at 16. (What he did at 10 does not concern us since that is the group in which his mental age falls.) This would give an irregularity score of 8 months at 6, 6 months at 7, 8 months at 8, 2 months at 9, 3 months at 12, and 15 months at 16, or a total of 42 "month's worth" of irregularity. This expedient was used on the principle that a success or failure two or three groups away from that in which the mental age falls is of more significance than it would be in an adjacent group.

In a group of 141 white children ranging in age from 4 to 15 Pressey found the median irregularity to be 10. In a group of 51 colored children the median was 14. For a group of 16 feeble-minded adults, 26. Of the 141 white children 11 per cent gave scores of 20 or more.

The data for the present study are taken from two sources: (1) A group of 200 delinquent boys successively examined in a state school. Their ages range from 9 to 18. Mental ages from 6 to 18. I. Q. s from .49 to 1.20. Of these 200, 156 are white children, 23 Mexicans and 21 colored; (2) A group of 100 delinquent girls, pupils in another state school. Of these 94 are white, 5 colored and 1 Indian. Their ages range from 13 to 21. Mental age from 8 to 18. I. Q. s from .53 to 1.18. The wide range method was used in all cases.

Figure 1 shows the distribution of irregularity for the two groups. The median for the boys falls at 14, for the girls at 16. It is interesting to note that while the median of the largest group is 14, the mode for this group and one of the modes for the girls' group fall at

1. *Irregularity on a Binet Examination as a Measure of Its Reliability.* Psychological Clinic, Vol. XII, p. 236.

10, Pressey's median for his 141 white children. The girls' group shows two modes, one at 10 and one at 20. The 21 colored boys show a median of 14 while the median for the 23 Mexicans is slightly higher, 16.

In the group of 200 boys 60 cases or 30 per cent give an irregularity of 20 or over (as compared with 11 per cent in Pressey's group of 141 white children). Twenty or 10 per cent give an irregularity of over 30, 5 or 2 per cent give an irregularity of over 40, while 2 cases are over 50.

In the group of 100 girls 34 per cent give an irregularity of 20 or over, 12 per cent of over 30 and 4 per cent of over 40. None over 50.

Table I shows irregularity as found at different ages in Pressey's group of 141 white children.

Table II gives the same data for the group of 200 delinquent boys.

Table III gives irregularity as related to age in the group of 100 delinquent girls.

Table IV shows the relation between irregularity and I.Q. in Pressey's group of 141 white children.

Tables V and VI give the same data for the delinquent groups.

In the cases of 44 boys the records make some mention of indications, either in the boy himself or in his family, of psychopathic, neurotic or unstable conditions. Such conditions may well exist in others of the 200 cases but only those where definite reference has been made to them are included in the 44. Of these cases the median irregularity is 16.5. Sixteen of them are among the 50 showing the greatest irregularity while ten are among the 50 showing the least irregularity. Nineteen of these cases, or about 43 per cent show an irregularity of 20 or over as compared with 30 per cent for the whole group and 11 per cent for Pressey's 141 white children. Some cases, on the other hand which show marked instability are among those whose scattering is well below 20.

Thirty-three of the 200 boys were given the Downey Will-Profile Scale.<sup>2</sup> Their scores on this range from 28 to 66 and showed practically no correlation with irregularity ( $r .039$ ).

The highest 10 per cent and the lowest 10 per cent of the 200 boys were rated by the chief supervisor (or in a few instances by the boys' teachers) as to their conduct in school. Of the highest 10 per cent half were called troublesome. Of the lowest ten per cent only about one-third.

<sup>2</sup> *The Will-Profile of Delinquent Boys*, by Edythe K. Bryant. *Journal of Delinquency*, Vol. VI, p. 294.



The case showing the highest irregularity in either group (58) is a boy aged 15-9. Mental age 14-7. I.Q. .82. Of practically normal intelligence, but of neurotic, psychopathic type. His misconduct had consisted of incorrigibility, stealing and burglary. Is over developed sexually. Father had been an evangelist. Deserted the mother when the boy was quite young. Mother a high-strung woman, now suffering from paralysis. Has been assisted by the Charities.

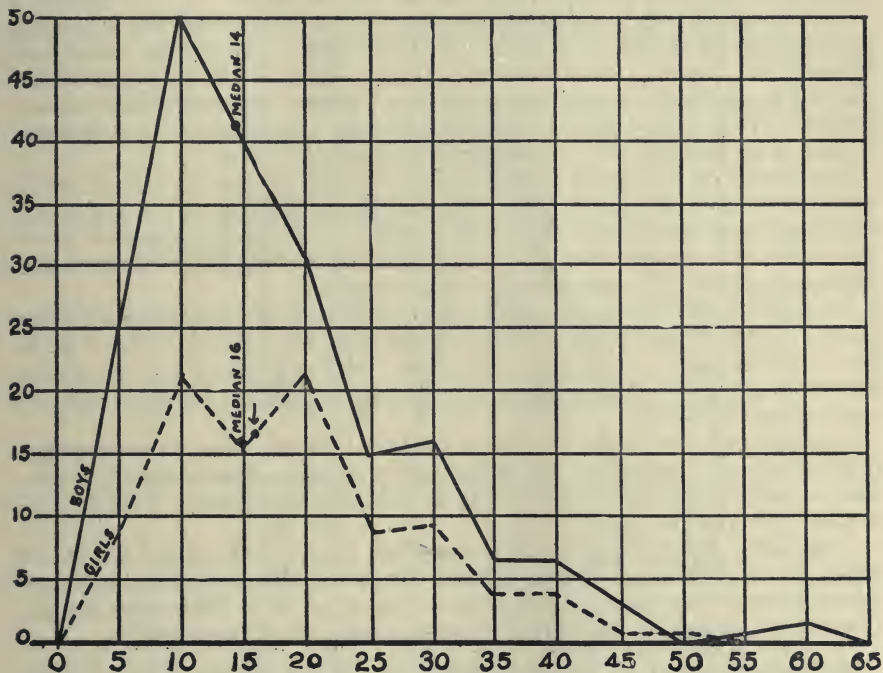


Fig. 1. Comparative distribution of irregularity for delinquent boys and girls.

*Irregularity 52.* Italian boy aged 13-7. Mental age 12-2. I.Q. .89. Good digit span accounts for more than half of the scattering in this case. Active temperament, violent temper. Sent to the school for stealing and running away from home.

*Irregularity 51.* Boy aged 15-11. Mental age 13-1. I. Q. .82. Italian. Handicapped by lack of comprehension of any but the simplest English. Has lived among-undeducated, probably illiterate people. Sent here because beyond control of parents who are hotel keepers speaking little English.

*Irregularity 46.* Girl. Colored. Age 17-10. Mental age 15-7. I. Q. .97. Utterly lawless and irresponsible. Clever, but very lazy. A troublemaker in the school. Was brought up by an aunt because the mother was unfit to care for her.

*Irregularity 46.* Girl. Age 17-4. Mental age 10-10. I. Q. .67. A heavy, stolid girl, shy and reticent. Vocabulary barely up to 8 year level, yet passes paper cutting at superior adult. Physically over developed. Sex interests predominate. Mother feeble-minded and home inferior.

*Irregularity 43.* Boy. Age 12-10. Mental age 14-5. I. Q. 1.12. Active, sometimes excitable. A confirmed runaway. Began his wanderings at about 8. Hard to manage because wilful and obstinate. Has a vivid imagination and takes the lead among his associates. Parents are refined and fairly well educated American people but quarrel sometimes. It was during a period of estrangement between them that the boy's delinquency seems to have begun.

*Irregularity 42.* Girl. Age 16-7. Mental age 15-3. I. Q. .95. An intelligent constitutional psychopath with bad neurotic inheritance. Industrious, honest and thorough in her work. Frank and open in attitude but unstable in all directions. Has had to spend much time in the disciplinary cottage. A decided leader among the girls. Was brought up in a Catholic orphanage. Father was a heavy drinker. Mother in a state hospital. Maternal grandmother died insane.

*Irregularity 10.* Boy age 14-7. Mental age 10-10. I. Q. .68. A most unstable individual showing marked peculiarities with possibility of psychosis developing later. Had been quite clever at passing fictitious checks. Is diligent and obedient under supervision but cannot be depended on when alone. Mother died of tuberculosis. Father remarried. Is a painter and earns good wages.

*Irregularity 10.* Girl age 14-5. Mental age 17-2. I. Q. 1.18. All-round superiority but not especially fond of books. Prefers laboratory and practical work. Said to have a bad disposition. Ran away from home. Mother is dead and father's home said to be not good. Active temperament and good energy. Seems normal and reasonable in outlook.

*Irregularity 0.* Girl. Age 15-8. Mental age 11-3. I. Q. .72. Pretty and attractive in a childish way. No solidity nor stability of character. Seems to have persistence in carrying through a task and to be amenable to training. Father Irish. Mother said to be half Indian.

*Irregularity 0.* Boy. Age 15-8. Mental age 9-6. I. Q. .61. Quiet, low voiced and timid. 9-year test easy. 12-year difficult. Passes half at 10. Sullen and resentful disposition. Had been a persistent truant and petty thief. Has violent temper. Comes from bad home. Mother and sisters immoral. 10 children in family.

Pressey's group of 141 white children is not a wholly unselected one and the ages are younger than those of our delinquent groups but even with these differences there seems to be indicated a greater tendency toward scattering among delinquents than among children of the same age in general, thirty per cent of the delinquent boys and thirty-four per cent of delinquent girls giving an irregularity of above 20 as compared with eleven per cent in his group of 141. The median irregularity for the delinquent boys' group is 14, the same as that found by Pressey for his 51 negro boys. The median for the delinquent girls' group is 16.

Comparison of I. Q. with irregularity (Table VII and Fig. 2) shows



a rather stronger tendency than has yet been found toward greater scattering among the higher I.Q. s. This confirms the findings of Wallin<sup>3</sup> that irregularity is not indicative of subnormality, but seems

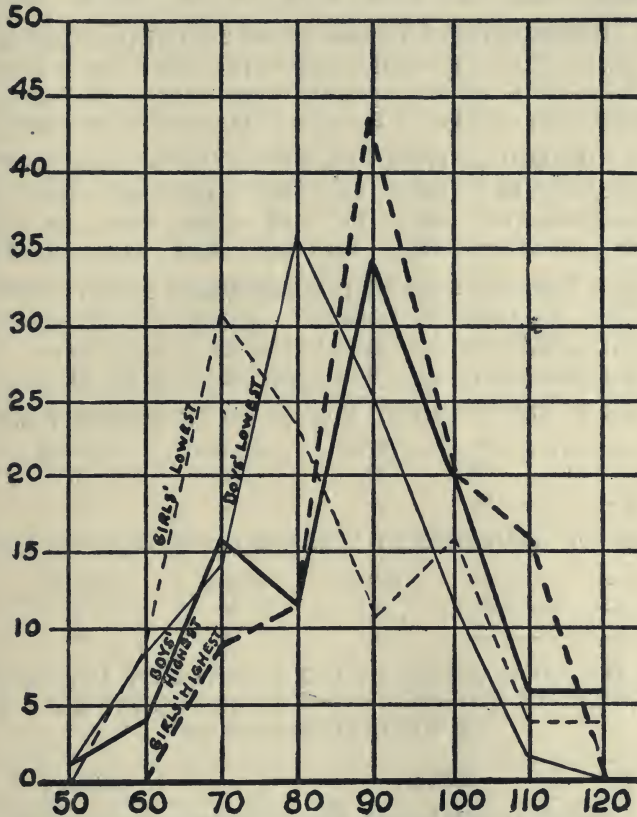


Fig. 2. Graphic representation of data in Table VII. Comparison of I. Q.s of highest and lowest irregularity quartiles of 200 delinquent boys and 100 delinquent girls.

to refute those of Doll whose conclusion is that the feeble-minded child "obtains his points of credit from a greater range of tests than does the normal child of the same intelligence level."<sup>4</sup>

3. J. E. W. Wallin: *The Phenomenon of Scattering in the Binet-Simon Scale*. Psychological Clinic, Vol. XI, p. 179.  
 4. E. A. Doll. Training School Bulletin, Vol. XVI, p. 96. *Scattering in the Binet-Simon Tests*. Doll says, however, that empirical observations have shown that scattering is "most striking in feeble-mindedness combined with epilepsy and insanity.....somewhat less striking with the 'accidentally' feeble-minded and is least apparent with the hereditary feeble-minded."

TABLE I. IRREGULARITY, PRESSEY'S GROUP OF 141 WHITE CHILDREN.

Age.....	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	
No. ....	1	1	12	13	18	10	24	17	12	4	4	4	141
Median irreg.....			8	10	8	12	9	13	9	8	10	10	10

TABLE II. IRREGULARITY IN GROUP OF 200 DELINQUENT BOYS.

Age.....	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
No. ....	1	4	4	15	27	37	54	48	8	2
Median irreg.....		19	9	10	16	15	12	16	9	21

TABLE III. IRREGULARITY IN GROUP OF 100 DELINQUENT GIRLS.

Age.....	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
No. ....	1	11	10	23	22	15	9	6	3
Median irreg.....		16	8	18	16.5	20	16	12	22

TABLE IV. PRESSEY'S 141 WHITE CHILDREN GROUPED BY I. Q.

I. Q. ....	-76	76-90	91-110	110-125	125+
No. ....	23	37	42	24	15
Median irreg.....	9	8	9	10	14

TABLE V. GROUPING BY I. Q. OF 200 DELINQUENT BOYS

I. Q. ....	-76	76-90	91-110	110-125	125+
No. ....	68	87	39	6	0
Median irreg.....	12	14	16	21	--

TABLE VI. GROUPING BY I. Q. OF 100 DELINQUENT GIRLS

I. Q. ....	-76	76-90	91-110	110-125	125+
No. ....	35	38	24	3	0
Median irreg.....	12	19	19	10	--

TABLE VII. COMPARISON OF I. Q. OF HIGHEST AND LOWEST IRREGULARITY QUARTILES OF 200 DELINQUENT BOYS AND 100 DELINQUENT GIRLS.

I. Q.	BOYS		GIRLS	
	Highest quartile	Lowest quartile	Highest quartile	Lowest quartile
	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent
111-120	6	0	0	4
101-110	6	2	16	4
91-100	20	12	20	16
81-90	34	26	44	12
71-80	12	36	12	24
61-70	16	14	8	32
51-60	4	8	0	8
41-50	2	2	0	0



The data presented give us no definite clew as to what are the specific factors which make for the greater scattering. While many individuals who show great scattering in their tests are recognized as unstable, neurotic or psychopathic in their make-up, there are others in whom these tendencies are quite as pronounced who give very even tests. With language handicaps it is the same. Among the children who learned some other language before English and whose parents still cling to their native tongue we find some who scatter much and others who scatter little.

There are needed more data from unselected children drawn from the same large social groups from which our delinquents come before adequate comparisons can be made. The writer has come to feel with Pressey that a statement of irregularity is an important fact in the summary of test results. Whether justified or not there is a sense of reliability and security about a mental age score from an examination showing little irregularity which is not felt when much scattering is present.

# The Journal of Delinquency

Published bi-monthly by The California Bureau  
of Juvenile Research

WHITTIER, CALIFORNIA

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Entered as second-class matter March 27, 1916 at the Post Office at Whittier, California, under the Act of August 24, 1912. Acceptance for mailing at special rate of postage provided for in Section 1103, Act of October 3, 1917, authorized August 3, 1918.

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Vol. VI

March, 1921

No. 2

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## DELINQUENCY AS AN EDUCATIONAL PROBLEM

The article by E. A. Doll in this issue covers a number of points which emphasize the rapidly growing tendency to regard juvenile delinquency as a problem of public education. Industrial institutions are public schools, maintained at public expense, as are all other schools for the education of children. Recent developments have shown that the greater the trend in this direction the more effective the policy of the institution becomes. Juvenile delinquency nearly always begins in the public schools, and its causes are closely associated with the special educational problems with which every public school has to contend. Delinquent children are but a selected group of public school pupils, representing those whose needs cannot be met by the regular school procedure. The methods of diagnosis which Dr. Doll discusses are as necessary in the regular public schools as for institutions. There is reason to believe that the application of these methods earlier in the school period would go far toward preventing the necessity for commitments by the juvenile courts.

(J. H. W.)



# EXAMINATION METHODS IN THE STUDY OF DELINQUENCY

The Berkshire Farm at Canaan, New York, is among the institutions which were first to develop scientific laboratories for the study of delinquent children. Superintendent Hilliard in this issue plainly states his attitude, as an institution executive, toward this work. He is in accord with other leading superintendents in this field in holding that advanced methods of institution procedure will depend largely upon the development of scientific methods. (J. H. W.)

## INTELLIGENCE "SCATTERING"

Although the mental age is probably the most important fact indicated by a Binet examination, the range of mental activity through which this level is obtained is also significant in determining intellectual efficiency. Persons of the same mental level may differ widely in the quality of intellectual expression. This fact has been especially noted among delinquent children, whose test irregularities are greater than is found among unselected children of the same ages. Miss Julia Mathews gives in this issue the results obtained in a preliminary analysis of tests at the laboratory of the California Bureau of Juvenile Research. Further study of this problem, it is believed, may disclose some of the mental factors which are associated with the causes of juvenile delinquency. (J. H. W.)

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## NOTICE OF INCORRECT PAGING

Through an unfortunate oversight the paging of the present volume was continued from the previous volume. Thus the issue for January 1921 begins with page 331 instead of page 1, as it should have been. The paging for this volume will be continuous, however, and another explanatory note will appear with the Table of Contents when the volume is complete.—*Editor*.

## QUOTATIONS

## THE NEED OF OPPORTUNITY SCHOOLS IN MISSISSIPPI

A survey of the public schools of Jackson, undertaken by the Mississippi Mental Hygiene Commission, results in demonstrating the need of special training facilities for dullards and feeble-minded children. Children of these classes, who lack, by nature, the kind of imagination which enables them to profit by ordinary public school instruction, are a hindrance to the progress of normal children. In addition to this, the school itself is an intolerable nuisance to the ill-equipped child. None of us enjoy trying to do things we do not understand.

In the survey of Jackson schools, the Commission reports finding, actually in school, fifteen feeble-minded white children, besides an equal number who are of borderline intelligence. In addition to these, Doctor Haines, who did the work for the Commission, found eight other feeble-minded children either at home, or in state schools for the deaf or the blind. There were in the schools at the times of these examinations, 1555 white children. Somewhere near one per cent of the school population of Jackson, it seems safe to say, are so defective in mental ability by natural endowment, that the only hope for them in an educational way consists in some special manual training. They cannot learn from books. If an occasional one should learn to read, his ability to read would be of no use to him, because he cannot get ideas from the printed passage, nor can he learn to convey ideas through writing.

There is an urgent need in the city of Jackson for special opportunity schools, in which these and other children could be taught how to do things with their hands, and thus be made as nearly as possible useful members of society. Some of them are so handicapped they can never be useful. They should be sent to a state institution for the care of the feeble-minded. But for some of the higher grades of feeble-minded children, and for others whom we call dullards, the opportunity school should be provided, as part of the public school system.

What Jackson is thus shown to need is undoubtedly needed in every city, and in most of the consolidated schools of the State of Mississippi. A special room, where these very specially handicapped children could receive the special sort of training for which they are endowed, would prove a boon, not only to them, but to the normal children, and to the teachers of the schools. The teachers of these handicapped children must be specially trained. Their minds open up so slowly, and in such devious ways, that their teacher must have made special study of such minds, in order to do her work well. There is no question, however, that the investment in such a special teacher would prove a great benefit, by making the handicapped children more nearly self-supporting; and, also by facilitating the education of normally endowed children. Such special facilities for training the handicapped are almost as important as is better pay for teachers.—*Bulletin from the Mississippi Society for Mental Hygiene.*

## FEEBLE-MINDED IN ORPHANAGES

The Mississippi Mental Hygiene Commission reports the investigations of Dr. Thomas H. Haines, their scientific adviser, in two Mississippi orphanages. In



these two orphanages, with populations of about 270 children, there were found 41 children so defective in intelligence that the orphanages can never make of them self-supporting citizens. By inherited conditions the brains of these children are so dwarfed in development that they can never grow up beyond the years of childhood, so far as their minds are concerned. This means that there are about one hundred children in the orphanages of Mississippi of the same inherited incapacity for developing citizenship. They cannot develop character, because they have not the intelligence necessary to the development of character.

One little girl about 12 years of age, in one of these orphanages, has been with them four years. She has the mind of a child of about 3.5 years of age. She does not go to school, because she cannot profit by anything which goes on in the school room. She is able-bodied, but she cannot learn.

Two sisters in another orphanage, 12 and 14 years of age, came to them six years ago. They were brought by their parents from the woods in south Mississippi. The parents are so poorly endowed in wits and intelligence that they use very little language and the girls at that time did not speak at all. They have learned to talk. They are kept neatly clothed, and they look like nice little girls. But with all the efforts of teachers and care-takers they do not progress in school, and from intelligence tests, and all the facts which can be gained concerning their activities, it is now a foregone conclusion that they never will develop beyond the years of childhood, so far as their minds are concerned. The older girl has the mind of a child of 7.2 years, and the younger of 6.3 years.

Another child-caring agency recently brought from a wretched cabin in another clearing in south Mississippi, a family of six children. Three of these children were examined. Two of the three are feeble-minded. A 15-year-old boy has the mind of a child of 7.7 years; and his 14-year old brother has the mind of a child of 5.5 years.

The presence of such children in an orphanage is a great deterrent to the progress of the normal children in their mental and social development. At the same time, these feeble-minded children themselves do not get the training which is best calculated to make the most possible out of them. Feeble-minded children need special training in the use of their hands. When they are given such special training, they are made able to produce a part of their own necessities, and this at the same time affords them the means of being made happier. It is a economic procedure, as well as a humane plan, to give these children what they need for their special development. When Mississippi establishes a state colony and training school for children of this sort, it will be a great relief to the orphanages of state. When the Mississippi mental deficiency bill becomes a law, the state colony will take these feeble-minded children now in the orphanages, and will be ready to receive others which come after them. When this is done, the child-caring agencies of the state can do vastly more with their present resources for the really normal minded children, unfortunately left destitute by death or desertion.—*Bulletin from the Mississippi Society for Mental Hygiene.*

#### SCHOOLS FOR PARENTS

As a means of preventing delinquency on the part of normal parents the committee on Family Social Work of the Iowa State Conference of Social Workers, of which Hornell Hart of the University of Iowa is chairman, has made the suggestion

that state or city authorities undertake to provide schools for prospective parents.

It is pointed out by the committee that the law requires a person before he may practice law or medicine, sell drugs, teach school, or do any number of things, to first pass a state examination as a guarantee of fitness for the work. The committee states further:

"Yet the law permits any individual of adult age to practice parenthood with no examination or proof of fitness whatever. Your committee urges that persons applying for marriage licenses be required to attend schools in parenthood for a certain period before marriage, or give bond to attend such schools immediately after marriage unless they can prove that they have information provided in such schools. The schools should teach women the rudiments of cooking, house-keeping, sewing, marketing, and care of infants. Men should spend a corresponding period in learning how to increase their earning power unless they can demonstrate their ability to earn a salary adequate to support a family. Both prospective parents should be taught rudimentary facts about sex hygiene, housing, and child training. If it is not deemed advisable to institute such schools under a compulsory law, then the university extension division, local public schools, and churches should be encouraged to provide such instruction, and county clerks, ministers and justices of the peace should be persuaded to urge prospective parents to attend."—*Survey*, December 11, 1920. p. 394.

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## PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

**Bridgman, Olga:** *Mental Training of the Young Child*. San Francisco: Children's Year Committee and California Society for Mental Hygiene. Sept. 1918. pp. 4.

A well-prepared brief statement, intended particularly for mothers, calling attention to the permanency of habits and ideas fixed during the early pre-school years. We observe that this pamphlet has been distributed to fifteen thousand mothers, and that it has since been printed in two lots of ten thousand each for daily distribution. The Children's Year Message of Governor William D. Stephens is published with the pamphlet. (J. H. W.)

**Burnet, James.** *Manual of Diseases of Children*. Edinburg: E. & S. Livingstone, 1919. pp. 416. Price \$2.00.

This is a convenient and practical discussion of the chief affections of growing children, particularly during the period of infancy. It is prepared from the point of view of the English practitioner, but should be useful to physicians everywhere. The author's suggestion that "the student and the general practitioner are not too well supplied with books on children's diseases" applies perhaps more to this country than to England. A manual of this sort should be available to every physician and medical inspector. (J. H. W.)

**Harding, John R.** *One Thousand Reformatory Prisoners as Seen in Perspective*. Reprinted from the 44th Annual Report of the New York State Reformatory. Elmira, N. Y. 1919. pp. 12.

The findings of the Elmira research department concerning 1000 offenders, as



summarized in this pamphlet, reveal the usual accompaniments of the delinquent character. Among the more significant facts listed it is noted that 80 per cent show alcoholism in the family history, and 76 per cent in the personal history; venereal disease was found in 21 per cent of the inmates; 37 per cent were vagrants; 7 per cent had reached high school, 57 per cent grammar or common school, 32 per cent primary school, and 4 per cent were illiterate. The mental diagnoses are: *good*, 5 per cent; *fair*, 15 per cent; *poor*, 21 per cent; *subnormal*, 48 per cent; *segregable*, 11 per cent. To this confusing terminology is added the statement that 24 per cent are classified as *psychopathic*, and 17 per cent as *defective delinquents*. The prognosis is *good* in 4 per cent of the cases; *fair* in 34 per cent, *poor* in 16 per cent; *doubtful* in 34 per cent, and *hopeless* in 12 per cent. The physical condition is reported as *good* in but 15 per cent of the cases, the remainder being divided equally between *fair* and *poor*. The whole study indicates a loose use of both statistics and terminology. (J. H. W.)

Harper, Roland M. *Illiteracy in Alabama*. Reprinted from the Montgomery Advertiser, 90-152, June 1, 1919. University, Ala.

A study of the distribution and cause of illiteracy in Alabama based upon the report of a state illiteracy commission census by the state Department of Education, reports of migrations and U. S. census reports. In 1870 54.2 per cent of the population over ten years were illiterate; by 1910 this was reduced to 22.9 per cent. The forty-six white counties had 17.8 per cent against 33.5 per cent in the twenty-one black counties. Rural communities had 25.2 per cent, urban communities 130. per cent. Density of population influences illiteracy since the compulsory education law exempts those living more than two and one-half miles from a school. While the state remains so sparsely settled illiteracy will continue to be a problem. In communities where the negroes are most numerous the contrast between the negroes and whites in education is greatest and the negroes are less efficient, on the average. Distance from birthplace is another influencing factor. The unlettered man is less likely to travel than the educated man unless he goes in a gang with a leader; similarly negroes migrate less than whites and rural groups less than urban groups. This largely accounts for the lower percentage of illiteracy in Florida, Oklahoma and California. In discussing the effects of the compulsory education law enacted in Alabama two years ago, the author cites the experience of other states where this law has long been in effect. He finds that the industrial conditions demand uneducated persons who are, because of their illiteracy, willing to perform monotonous tasks. Compulsory education has largely eliminated this group and to fill the void, illiterate foreigners have been imported. During the war illiterate negroes were imported into northern communities for the same reason. The purpose of this article is to show that illiteracy is not such a menace as is often supposed. In discussing this situation the author has touched on a vital economic problem which machine production has intensified. He has, however, failed to take into consideration the feeble-minded who undoubtedly swell the ranks of illiteracy and who will still remain relatively illiterate despite compulsory education. It is possible that with the better understanding of the feeble-minded we may, in the future, be able to utilize them more generally at routine tasks. In this way normal illiterates may be released and allowed to become educated without economic loss. (E. K. B.)

Harris, Hannah Margaret. *Lessons in Civics for the Three Primary Grades of City Schools*. U. S. Bureau of Education, Teachers' Leaflet No. 9. July 1920. Washington: Government Printing Office. pp. 64.

A series of lessons prepared by Miss Harris at the request of Commissioner P. P. Claxton of the bureau of education. The purpose of the lessons is to enable the teachers of children of the first, second, and third grades in city schools to make a good practical beginning in instruction in civics on the basis of experience and induction. In a letter of transmittal Dr. Claxton says, "I believe educators and citizens generally have never been more conscious of the need of instruction of this kind than now. If the masses of people are to be informed and trained in regard to their civic rights, duties, and obligations, it is necessary that children be reached in the lower grades. As yet, only about thirty per cent of American children enter high school." The bulletin is distributed at cost. (J. H. W.)

Hollingsworth, Leta S.: *The Psychology of Subnormal Children*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1920. pp. 288.

This book is addressed to teachers rather than to clinicians and deals more with the educational psychology of deficient children and with the achievements of defectives than with methods of diagnosis. The author has marshalled the facts in her usual forceful and clear-cut manner illustrating freely from her own wide experience and emphasizing everywhere the points that will be most helpful and illuminating to the teacher faced with a roomful of these special problems. Of particular value in helping the teacher to a better understanding are the chapters discussing irregularity of abilities, the instincts and emotions, and the learning of the feeble-minded. It is a volume which should be on the working book-shelf of every special-class teacher. (J. M.)

National Conference of Social Work. *Proceedings of Forty-Sixth Annual Meeting*. Julia Lathrop, President. Atlantic City, N.J.: 1919. pp. 613.

Comprising more than 150 addresses and papers related to practical social problems, this volume is a valuable addition to the series of National Conference reports. One sub-section is devoted to *Juvenile Delinquency as a Community Problem*, and one entire section is devoted to *Delinquents and Correction*. The section on *Mental Hygiene* is devoted largely to the problem of the social worker, and includes some excellent discussions. (J. H. W.)

National Research Council. *The National Intelligence Tests*. Prepared by M.E. Haggerty, L.M. Terman, E.L. Thorndike, G.M. Whipple, and R.M. Yerkes (Chairman). Yonkers: World Book Co. 1920. Manual of Directions contains 32 pp. Price, per specimen set, 50 cents.

Following the method used for the psychological examination of recruits in the Army, the authors have adapted a series of tests for school purposes. The preparation of the tests has required extensive experimentation and patient research, which the resulting standardization has fully justified. The use of group tests in schools has become a part of our educational procedure, and the increasing tendency to make education count for the most possible with each individual child requires the extensive application of scientific methods of grading, classification, and promotion. The National tests are adapted to grades 3 to 8 inclusive, and for use with pupils entering high school. (J. H. W.)



Popenoe, Paul; and Johnson, Roswell Hill: *Applied Eugenics*. New York: Macmillan Co. 1918. pp. 459. Price \$2.10.

This is probably the best popular discussion of the subject of eugenics which has yet appeared from an American press. It is based largely upon articles and discussions previously appearing in the *Journal of Heredity*, of which Mr. Popenoe but recently relinquished the editorship. Especial emphasis has been placed, and commendably so, upon the practical social problems which bear on the transmission of racial qualities. Some of these problems are individual differences, the disgenic classes, marriage and birth rates, racial controversies, immigration, war, taxation, socialism, child labor, education, housing, feminism, sex hygiene, prohibition, and "pedagogical celibacy". In fact there is no human problem which is not closely related to the racial qualities which eugenics seeks to improve. Many interesting and well printed photographs showing typical and unusual hereditary characteristics improve the value of the book as an educator of public opinion. The sociological significance of the authors' attempt is brought out forcefully in a preface by Professor E. A. Ross. This book could be profitably used in connection with Davenport's *Heredity in Relation to Eugenics* by students of the American point of view in this field. (J. H. W.)

Ransom, John E.: *Some Extra Institutional Needs of the Feeble-minded*. Reprinted from the Proceedings of the American Association for the Study of the Feeble-minded. 1919. pp. 84-88.

An argument for enlarging and extending the activities of the state with reference to the supervision and training of the high grade feeble-minded, who are either released from institutions or never reach an institution. The author encourages public psychological clinics, special vocational training in the public schools, and more adequate training for institution employees and social workers. (J. H. W.)

Snedden, David: *Vocational Education*. New York: Macmillan Co. 1920. pp. 587.

This book is not so much a text in the methods of vocational education as it is an attempt to analyze the salient problems of vocational education. Considerable space is given to the discussion of controversial issues but in a constructive and not merely contentious manner. Among the topics treated are: "The Social Need of better Vocational Education", "The Relation of General to Vocational Education", and "Vocational Education for the Agricultural, Industrial, Commercial, Homemaking, and Professional Callings." Two of the most significant chapters in the book are those under the headings, "The Administration of Vocational Education," and "The Training of Teachers for Vocational Education." Dr. Snedden has performed the same service for vocational education in his new book that he rendered the cause of secondary education when he wrote his "Problems of Secondary Education." By an apparent overstatement of certain problems that are still debatable he challenges attention and stimulates discussion. In addition to this he gives us the advantage of his own hypothetical surmises and conclusions which are always worthy of consideration owing to the author's wide experience and vigorous participation in current forward movements in vocational education. (W. M. Proctor.)

Vaughan, Victor C. *Sex Attraction*. St. Louis: C. V. Mosby Company, 1920. pp. 44. Price 50 cents.

A neatly printed volume based on a lecture given to the students of the Michigan State Normal School in July 1919. The author believes that "there are certain fundamental principles connected with the sex problem which all should understand," and for some years he has given a course of this kind to women students at the University of Michigan. The text is well adapted to college students, is free from technical phraseology and is worth the attention of any well-meaning young man or woman. (J. H. W.)

**Whipple, George Chandler.** *Vital Statistics.* New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1919. pp. 517. Price \$4.00.

The author has made the first attempt in America to produce a systematic text book on vital statistics which will meet the needs of physicians, health officers, sociologists and students of public-welfare problems. The effort is well repaid by the practical evidence which he has gathered showing the necessity for basing public supervisory procedure on scientifically obtained facts. Among the 15 chapters are discussions of demography; statistical arithmetic; graphic methods; population statistics; birth, death, and marriage rates; causes of death; correlation; probability; and state laws. It is an excellent working text for students of the subject and for research workers in all fields. The arrangement, make-up and binding are a credit to the author and publishers. (J. H. W.)

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## PERIODICAL LITERATURE

**Children's Courts in England.** The *London Times* educational supplement reports a House of Commons juvenile courts bill designed to set up juvenile courts apart from ordinary police courts and to consist of one trained, skilled magistrate and two lay magistrates, at least one of whom to be a woman; several of such courts to be distributed about London, and not to interfere in any way with London police negotiations. For these courts are to be selected the justices who are especially interested in, have had special experience in, and had special capacity for this work. The real beneficial point of the bill is the placing of the young offender in a different, better atmosphere than that of the regular courts. The bill passed the Commons.—*Educational Events.* School and Society, XIII-317, Jan. 22, 1921. pp. 104-105. (K. M. C.)

**Juvenile Delinquency and Mental Defect.** It has been left for such organizations as the Canadian National Committee for Mental Hygiene to probe into matters which have heretofore been a veritable "terra incognita." They found in the public schools of Toronto 3 per cent who were mentally handicapped. Of the 4,319 cases who passed through the psychiatric clinic of the Toronto General Hospital 1,419 were delinquents of school age who were sent for examination by the juvenile court. It showed a serious failure in the public school methods to anticipate troubles which were inevitable under a system not developed to consider the individual pupil. Truancy occurred in a small percent of the cases. It has been found in Vancouver that with the installation of special classes truancy practically disappears. The explanation is that the truants are usually derived from high grade defective groups and cannot keep up with other pupils in their class; and realizing



their failure they naturally react against surroundings which are not congenial. When placed in classes where they are kept interested they are no longer truants and delinquents. Theft was the most common charge. In these cases if there had been early detection of the mental defect and placement in special classes in a boys' village it would have prevented the children from becoming anti-social. There were also eighty-six cases of immorality. The details of these cases would convince even the most critical theorist that such children are really a menace not to be ignored. Whatever was found to be true in Toronto is equally true of any public school in Canada. Bad environment also plays an important role, but it is so often the outcome of poor mentality of parents that it becomes a simple matter to confound cause with the effect. If we are to lessen vice we must begin work by a careful study of the individual in the schools with the idea of controlling and treating the defective and diseased.—*C. K. Clarke*. *Canadian Journal of Mental Hygiene*, II-3, Oct. 1920. pp. 228-232. (M. S. C.)

**Children Who Never Get to Court.** The work of the Brooklyn Juvenile Protective Association, a private organization working with the Children's Court, is divided into two sections: (1) preventive work—looking after the welfare of children in danger of becoming delinquent and saving them from commitment to an institution or from court record, and (2) after-care of children who have been in institutions and on probation. Of 370 cases brought before the association during eight months only eleven were returned to the court. They were classified as follows: (a) ungovernable children, 90; (b) disorderly conduct, 145; (c) larceny, 16; (d) damaging property, 120. Specialized care is required and is accomplished through trained workers who make all preliminary investigations and reports and through Big Brothers and Big Sisters who take up the work with the individual child when a plan for the child's welfare has been formulated.—*Gertrude Grasse*. *National Humane Review*, IX-1, Jan. 1921. pp. 3, 4. (W. W. C.)

**The Court and the Delinquent Child.** Juvenile courts have failed to provide suitable machinery for the reformation of incorrigible children particularly because the courts are not fundamentally adapted to the work. The reformation and correction of delinquent children are processes of education; education is specifically the province of the home and the school. However remodeling inefficient homes is a long course and a discouraging one so the suitable institution to undertake the reformation of incorrigible children is the school. As practically every case of delinquency involves school children, their conduct in school, and their formal education, all agencies for the instruction, reformation, correction and training of children of school age should be subject to school authority. The function of the court should be limited to the mere determination of the facts of delinquency. By placing the responsibility of the correction and reformation of incorrigible children in the educational institutions, and limiting the powers of the court to judicially determining the guilt or innocence of the child, we may anticipate great improvement in the method of treating juvenile offenders.—*Herbert M. Baker*. *American Journal of Sociology*, XXVI-2, Sept. 1920. pp. 176-186. (W. W. C.)

**An Analysis of Suicidal Attempts.** In 46 cases making unsuccessful attempts 16 were cases of dementia præcox, 9 of manic depressive, 5 of psychopathic personality, 3 of psychoneurosis, 2 alcoholic, 2 epileptic, 3 undiagnosed and the others scattered. The large proportion of dementia præcox cases was unexpected and

may be partly explained by the fact that three times as many dementia praecox as manic depressive cases came under observation. It is evident, however, that it is necessary to guard against suicidal attempts in dementia praecox more carefully than has been done heretofore. The reasons for the attempts: in 14 cases, depression; in 7 cases by direction of hallucinations or delusions; in 6 to escape persecution; in 7 to escape physical suffering or social complications or mental disease; in 4 cases unexplained; in 5 cases, attempt to gain sympathy or attention; in 3 cases, epileptic confusion. Methods employed in the attempts included cutting, 17; gas, 13; poison, 8; drowning, 6; hanging, 4; jumping out of high window, 3; swallowing foreign bodies, 2; strangulation, 1; shooting, 1; setting fire to herself, 1. Normal people occasionally commit or attempt suicide, but all the cases in this series were insane or psychopathic or in an abnormal state as the result of alcoholic excess at the time of their attempts.—*Lawson G. Lowry*, *Journal of Mental and Nervous Disease*, XLII-6, Dec. 1920. pp. 475-481. (J. M.)

**Is There an Ideal Treatment of Morphinism?** Morphinism is a disease and belongs to the medical profession to deal with rather than to the lay reformer. The method of locking up an addict and taking away his supply is wrong therapeutically because needlessly dangerous and brutal and because it is based on the assumption that the addict is a criminal. Treatment of addicts in jail is not constructive. No single method is ideal for all classes of cases. For the person who was well disciplined in his pre-addict days the best method is that of gradual reduction without the use of restraints, leaving it to the patient to play fairly. By this means the patient's self respect and self confidence are restored. It also avoids the shock and danger especially serious when the disease is complicated by diabetes, tuberculosis or other difficulties. Morphine lessens ambition and courage so that the treatment without use of restraints is as much a matter of psychiatry as of physical therapeutics and requires a strong and sympathetic personality for its administration. Many cases however are incapable of cooperating sufficiently to make this method possible. For these some of the so-called "quick methods" must be resorted to although these restore the patient to complete health more slowly than the more nearly ideal procedure of gradual reduction without restraint.—*C. B. Pearson*, *Journal of Nervous and Mental Disease*, LXII-6, Dec. 1920. pp. 480-500. (J. M.)

**President-elect Harding on Child Welfare.** In addressing Ohio Child Welfare Workers, Mr. Harding pointed out that mothers should make the most of the less and less time left them for direct influence for good on their children and in this way cooperate with all the other agencies trying to help in child welfare. The democracy in the community's public schools was recommended, dissatisfaction being expressed over the well-to-do who take their children out of the public schools and place them in more exclusive educational institutions. Need was expressed for more of firm religious faith. Undernourishment is too prevalent and in the case of children the obligation is on society to relieve the conditions of privation effecting so many of the citizens of tomorrow.—*School and Society*, XIII 314, Jan. 1, 1921. p. 17. (K. M. C.)

**A Comparison of Three Methods for Making the Initial Selection of Presumptive Mental Defectives.** In the first place the schools of St. Louis took the initiative in selecting suspected feeble-minded for examination, by the psycho-educational



clinic. The method was unsatisfactory, some schools reporting too many and others too few cases. Later the responsibility was divided between the schools and the clinic. Twice annually the schools reported its one per cent of (estimated) most deficient pupils and from this list the director of the clinic selected the examinees. 74.4 per cent were diagnosed as feeble-minded or borderline. Later the Pressey Primary Scale was used as an experiment in selection by group test. The lowest 77 of 382 taking the test were selected for individual examination. Definite high correlations were found between the results of the group and individual tests. The group tests were found not adaptable to the younger children on account of distractions and lack of habits of application rendering the results inaccurate and the correlations imperfect. Also known imperfections in results of use of Stanford-Binet tests affect findings. Selection by the teacher-report method results in a higher per cent of cases finally diagnosed as feeble-minded and borderline than did the use of group tests. Group intelligence tests so far are to be considered as only one among many aids in educational, intelligence and social classification and will not take the place of individual psycho-clinical examinations.—*J. E. Wallace Wallin*. *School and Society*, XIII-315, Jan. 8, 1921. pp. 31-45. (K. M. C.)

**A Comparative Study of the Intelligence of White and Colored Children.** "It is perhaps only fair to say that this study was undertaken with a distinct bias in favor of the colored child." (!) The study is confined to three inquiries: (1) relative racial intelligence, (2) sex differences among colored children, and (3) racial differences in type of function. The subjects comprised 58 colored and 58 white children; the former being the total colored enrollment of the seventh and the eighth grades of a junior high school, and the latter a chance selection of an equal number from the white enrollment of the same school. The chronological ages were practically identical. The Stanford-Binet mental ages were as follows: colored boys 12.67, girls 12.14; white boys 13.70, girls 13.88. The I.Q.s were: colored boys 89.2, girls 89.3; white boys 100.0, girls 106.0. The *borderline* and *defective* classifications included 14 colored and 8 white children; the *very superior* group, 2 colored 13 white children. Analysis of individual tests showed a superiority of the white children in tests "involving the higher mental processes," and (the authors think) equality of the races on "rote memory tests not involving reversing or manipulation", "common-sense adjustment," and "verbal facility." On the whole, it is concluded that the general intellectual endowment of the colored children is about 85 per cent of that of the whites. The authors however, with their "bias for the colored child" hope for some qualitative differences in which that group may compensate for its "shortcoming in intellectual function."—*R. A. Schwegler and Edith Winn*. *Journal of Educational Research*, II-5, Dec. 1920. pp. 838-848. (J. H. W.)

**American Progress.** There are at least five and a half million illiterates in the United States. Nearly one-fifth of all American children between 10 and 15 are out of school earning their own living. Nine larger states report a startling increase in the number of children leaving school to go to work during the year 1920. As Stephen Leacock says: "The chief immediate direction of social effort should be towards the attempt to give every human being in childhood adequate food, clothing, education, and an opportunity in life."—*Owen R. Lovejoy*. *American Child*, II-3, Nov. 1920. pp. 196, 197. (W. W. C.)

**Address to the Educational Science Section of the British Association for the Advancement of Science.** Education has become a distinct department of science having become much more than mere applied psychology. Experimental work has been and is chiefly directed at the psychology of the individual child by means of the older method of observation and the more modern experimental tests. Diagnostic work has fostered individual treatment with special attention for the subnormal and mentally defective as well as for the "scholarship child." As yet little has been done in the scientific study of the delinquent. The United States is developing consideration of the exceptional child, while Germany is working with the supernormal. Tests for vocational abilities, sex, social and racial differences are coming in for study. Teaching methods have changed giving less emphasis to the disciplinary value of subjects or to strict logical sequences in subject matter as contrasted with the more modern genetic standpoint; more emphasis on mental and motor activities, more attention to emotional, moral and esthetic training together with opportunity for freedom of individual effort and initiative, while the hygiene and technique of all mental work is being based on scientific investigation. Behind all of this is the gradual growth of the scientific spirit in the teaching profession. In England public support of education is growing, but there is need for the hearty cooperation of voluntary endeavor with the public system. The clear purpose of all is to develop the intelligence and the spirit of social service in our whole population in complete confidence that the English character will maintain its civilization, broadening and deepening it by new streams of thought and action.—*Robert Blair*. *School and Society*, XII-300, Sept. 25, 1920. pp. 235-241. (K. M. C.)

**Propheying Army Promotion.** An attempt to determine to what extent Reed College might have predicted the progress of 116 of its students who entered the army or navy. Material for the investigation came from three sources: (a) Ratings of three judges (faculty members), using Scott's Rating Scale. (b) College marks from the registrar's office. (c) Army ranks. Conclusions resulting from an analysis of the 50 different correlations obtained are: (1) That school marks are inefficient instruments for determining a student's probable progress in the army. (2) That human judges are on the whole more efficient prognosticators of progress than are school marks. (3) That of all criteria for propheying success in the army the safest are: first, judges' estimates of value to the service, and second, judges' estimates of intelligence. (4) That the army may not always be correct in its selections (for promotion). (5) That the low correlations should be explained in part as due to our inefficient standards of judging efficiency, to imperfections in the system of army promotion and to differences in the factors upon which the army bases its promotions and those upon which school marks and judges estimates are based. (6) That other criteria than school marks and judges, estimates (though these are helps) must be used for a satisfactory development of a prognosticating machinery.—*S. C. Kohns*. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, IV-1. March, 1920. pp. 73-87. (J. M.)

**California the Golden.** Following the remarkable irrigation developments in Imperial Valley, California, and the ensuing inrush of settlers, housing problems, child labor, and non-attendance at school have developed. Adequate living conditions have not been provided by ranchers who have brought in hordes of laborers.



Children from three years of age up are kept out of school to pick cotton—the principal product of the valley—and are required to work from sun-up to sunset. California has adequate child labor laws to meet the situation but their violation is a constant occurrence, “warnings” seem to be the extent of the attempt at enforcement. Propaganda to the contrary notwithstanding, the enforcement of child labor laws and of school attendance laws is possible, even with the present school facilities, which in certain sections of the valley are inadequate. Claims of labor shortage and of excessive labor costs should not be accepted at their face value, and are not sufficient grounds for working children from dawn to dark, as at present.—*Emma Duke*. *American Child*, II-3, Nov. 1920. pp. 233-256. (W. W. C.)

**The Continuation School.** New York city school authorities require part time attendance of students fifteen and sixteen years of age, who have left the public schools before graduation. The 768 students attending the New York city continuation school were given the Otis intelligence test, showing a range of mental development as follows: 2.5 per cent, superior adult intelligence; 6.7 per cent, average mental ability; 90.2 per cent, below normal. The average physical age was 15 years 8 months while the average mental age was 11 years 1 month,—with a medium intelligence quotient of 69.5. These pupils are the youngest workers in industry and as they do not have average mental ability, the importance of their vocational and educational guidance is evident. Psychologists who have made careful studies in delinquency claim that mental deficiency is less likely to lead to delinquency if the individual is equipped with well-formed habits of skill and regularity. The continuation school offers a first step in providing vocational training to society's most helpless competitors in the industrial world.—*Ruth Swan Clark*. *Survey*, XLV-15, Jan. 8, 1921. pp. 541, 542. (W. W. C.)

**Syphilis and Degeneration.** Hereditary syphilis is one of the most important problems in the study of degeneracy. The organism may be profoundly vitiated by it without giving a positive Wasserman. The disease may be transmitted directly to the embryo from the mother and may cause abortion, premature birth, still birth, or a diseased infant. If the infant is apparently normal at birth the disease may appear later in life. Where there is no direct infection there may be degeneration and vitiation of the nervous system for which the spirocheta pallidum has a special predilection. Idiots, imbeciles, epileptics and individuals with unstable mental equilibrium with erotic or criminal tendencies can be produced by syphilis. General paralysis of the insane is caused only by this infection. Many observers believe that the endogenous psychoses are the ultimate results of hereditary syphilis. A direct relation undoubtedly exists between syphilis and crime for the disease is degenerative and where degeneration exists, crime exists. Criminality may be divided into two types, atavistic and evolutive. The first connotes violence, the second tends to fraud. Hereditary syphilis, in the main, belongs to the atavistic type. Among criminals is frequently found the acquired type of the disease grafted upon the hereditary taint. That there is a connection between syphilis and degeneracy, intimate and far reaching is a pathologic axiom that cannot be denied.—*Burton Peter Thom*. *Journal of Nervous and Mental Disease*, LIII-1, Jan. 1921. pp. 8-17. (J. M.)

**Intelligence and Behavior.** The doctrine of intelligence set forth in “Creative Intellingence” has been penetratingly analyzed and criticized by Professor Loves

joy who contends that the pragmatic doctrine of intelligence with its emphasis upon the quality of "creativity" is an assertion of the efficacy of consciousness in the control of behavior and a denial of interaction between mind and matter. The point of departure he avers is the contention that conscious behavior can be explained in terms of body and environment without the intervention of mind. It is a description of intelligence from which all that makes intelligence "intelligent" has been excluded. But let us restate the position under discussion. The doctrine attacked contends that consciousness involves a peculiar kind of stimulus, a curious "incompleteness" in which the present stimulus makes provision for its successor. When the quality of the processes involved in conscious behavior is recognized and sufficiently evaluated, the emphasis shifts from mental states in the traditional sense to the type of control exercised by *objects*. Professor Lovejoy suggest that the principal quarrel of pragmatism should be with "mechanistic naturalism"—but we do not get off the plane of mechanistic naturalism unless we give a new interpretation to conscious behavior. There is no ground for Professor Lovejoy's contention that if concepts are admitted to their legitimate place, pragmatism means interactionism. Unless we abandon the category of interactionism we are on the level of mechanistic naturalism from which the position of instrumentalism is intended to provide a means of escape. It may be that the road to progress lies, not through the psychophysical problem at all, but around it.—*B. H. Bode. Journal of Philosophy, XVIII-1, Jan. 6, 1921. pp. 10-17. (J. M.)*

**Selection—An Unnoticed Function of Education.** It has been assumed that education is a process of creating intelligence. As a matter of fact our educational system may better be regarded as a sieve for the separation of the competent from the incompetent—not the only sieve we have but an important one. The results of the army tests were carefully computed and correlated for 100,000 men of English names chosen at random from army lists. The average mental age was found to be about 13 years. Only about 25 per cent of pupils can reach the high school or go far into it, and only about 20 per cent do. Of these half are eliminated before the course is finished. The part the university plays in the selection of men for prominent places is indicated by the statistics in *Who's Who* for 1910-1911. Fifty-eight per cent of the men listed were college graduates, if the military men are included, and 71 per cent had attended college for a longer or a shorter time. Only ten per cent had had nothing more than a common school education and less than one per cent asserted that they were self educated. In emphasizing the selective phase of education the importance of knowledge and training need not be minimized but selection is, of itself, no mean function. By means of tests and measurements it is becoming possible to make selections earlier in the careers of many of our pupils but even assuming an entirely adequate system of measurements there are grave objections to the control of selection by any one agency. The present belief in equality of capacity with its correlate of equal opportunity provides an inestimable incentive to endeavor. Besides being a factor sufficiently important to justify in itself the existence of the educational system, the selective factor is also the one that conceals as well as atones for the faults in the functions that we ordinarily associate with education.—*W. B. Pillsbury. Scientific Monthly, XII-1, Jan. 1921. pp. 62-74. (J. M.)*



## INSTITUTION REPORTS

**Colorado.** *State Industrial School for Boys.* Nineteenth Biennial Report, 1918. Fred. L. Paddelford, superintendent. Golden, Colo. pp. 21.

This report deals particularly with the effort of the administration and the boys in conserving and aiding in winning the war. Several illustrations of buildings, grounds, boys at work and on parade are also included. A statement indicating the diversified activities of a school of this sort is given: "It is a school, a home, an asylum, a house of detention, a church, a trades school, a hospital, a military school and a school of music, all in one." (W. W. C.)

**Connecticut.** *State Prison.* 1920. Henry K. W. Scott, warden. Wethersfield, Conn. pp. 52.

Of special interest in this biennial is the report of a psychiatric survey of 622 prisoners examined by Dr. P. B. Battey, with following results:

Mentally deficient.....	136—21.86 per cent
Insane.....	55— 8.84 per cent
Constitutional psychopathic inferiority....	53— 8.52 per cent
Chronic alcoholic.....	17— 2.73 per cent
Psychoneurotic.....	3— .48 per cent
Epileptic.....	3— .48 per cent

Thus 42 per cent of the inmates were found to deviate from accepted normal states, and their abnormal mentality may have been a contributing factor in their delinquency. It is reported that eighty-five per cent of the paroled inmates made good. (W. W. C.)

**Kansas.** *State Board of Administration.* First Biennial Report, 1918. E. W. Hoch, vice chairman. Topeka, Kansas. pp. 50.

The management of all state institutions, with two minor exceptions, has been vested in the Kansas State Board of Administration. Although financial matters are important, the great work of the board is conceived to be "to inaugurate and foster a broad policy in the management of our educational institutions, to keep abreast of the most modern science in the treatment of our defectives, and to exercise the wisest and most humane policy toward those who have offended against the laws." The entire report indicates an earnest and progressive effort to promote both the business and professional aspects of institutional management. (W. W. C.)

**Michigan.** *Industrial School for Boys.* Thirty-second Biennial Report, 1918. J. M. Frost, superintendent. Lansing, Michigan. pp. 45.

As a result of special psychological examinations several feeble-minded boys were transferred from this school to the home for feeble-minded. It is stated that there is a tendency to commit feeble-minded boys to this institution because of delay in securing their reception at Lapeer, and that employment of a full-time psychologist would be of value in restricting this tendency and in leading to the establishment of more adequate accommodations or to the establishment of a central laboratory and clinic where all cases could be sent for examination and from there committed to the proper institution. A parole agent has been employed since 1917 to supervise placement on farms of boys who have been in the School at least one year. (W. W. C.)

New York. *State Training School for Girls*. Fifteenth Annual Report, 1918. Hortense V. Bruce, superintendent. Hudson, New York. pp. 37.

This school makes "laboratory study of the possibilities and methods of training the neglected or delinquent girl such as the courts of the state commit to our guardianship." Those mentally incapable of substantial benefit from instruction in the school have been returned to their counties. This may now be done with less fear of their being thrown upon a community which does not comprehend their need of protection as the local authorities seem to be awakening to the justice of giving custodial care to defectives. A series of lectures by a psychiatrist and by a mental-hygienist have been given the school staff in order to better the understanding among the officers of the school of the pupils and of the principles of dealing with them. The school has an average population of 365 girls and 127 officers and employees. (W. W. C.)

United States. *National Training School for Girls*. Annual Report, 1919. Jennie A. Griffith, superintendent. Washington, D. C. pp. 10.

The removal of definitely feeble-minded, reduction of size of supervisory groups from 50 to 25 girls, and the securing of competent teachers and employees are mentioned as essential for satisfactory training of girls. The school population consists of 35 white and 65 colored girls from 12 to 20 years of age. (W. W. C.)

Wisconsin. *Industrial School for Boys*. Eighteenth Biennial Report, 1918. Oscar Lee, superintendent. Waukesha, Wis. pp. 16.

This school is conducted under the cottage system, each of the eleven cottages having a family officer and matron, usually man and wife. Each group or family includes from thirty to forty boys. Eligibility for parole is now conditioned upon earning a certain number of credits, based on record, with the idea of getting the boy to thinking "credits" and "conduct" rather than "months" and "years." (W. W. C.)

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## NOTES AND COMMENT

### NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK

The next annual meeting of the National Conference of Social Work will be held in the city of Milwaukee from June 22 to 29. A program of especial value to all those interested in the subject of delinquents and correction has been prepared by Division II.

Subjects to be considered in the six meetings of the Division are *Social Hygiene*, *Juvenile Delinquency*, *Detention Homes and Reformatories*, *Judicial Procedure with Sex Offenders*, *Immediate Objectives in the Penological Program*, and *Prohibition and Delinquency*.

It is anticipated that among others who will speak at these meetings will be: Dr. William A. Snow, Mrs. Helen T. Woolley, Dr. William Healy, Mrs. Mina Van Winkle, Judge A. H. Reid, Dr. John H. Wigmore, Dr. George S. Kirchway, Professor J. L. Gillin, and Dr. Carrie Weaver Smith.

A large number of allied organizations will hold meetings in Milwaukee either immediately prior to or during the week of the National Conference meeting.



Among these allied organizations will be: The Lutheran Inner-Mission Society, Social Service Dept. of the Protestant Episcopal Church, Public Health Nurses' Association, the National Urban League for Social Service among Negroes, the Jewish Conference of Social Welfare, the Canadian Conference of Public Welfare, Foreign Community Workers, National Board of Y. W. C. A., the National Association for Community Organization, the American Association of Hospital Social Workers, National Federation of Day Nurseries, Inter-state Conference on Illegitimacy, National Probation Association, National Conference on Education of Backward, Truant, and Delinquent Children, American Association for Organizing Family Social Work, National Children's Home Society, National Child Labor Committee, and National Travelers' Aid Society.

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# The Journal of Delinquency

Volume VI

MAY, 1921

Number 3

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## NORMS FOR THE SEGUIN FORM-BOARD BASED ON THE AVERAGES OF THREE TRIALS

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The practice has for long been very generally followed of giving three trials in various psycho-motor and anthropometric tests and taking the best record of the three as the individual's norm. In our study of the Seguin form-board,<sup>1</sup> we gave the detailed results for each successive trial as well as the averages for the best trial of the three, and reached the conclusion that it was advisable to base the individual's norm on the best trial of the three rather than on the first, second or third trial, not only because this method of rating showed what the individual could do at his best, but because the absolute and relative variability was the smallest in this series (pp. 71, 88, and 90. The references refer to the pagination in the monograph.)

Since the publication of our study, however, we have received a number of inquiries as to whether the averages for the three trials could not be made available. Some have expressed the opinion that these average reaction times ought to be more reliable than the fastest single reaction times, particularly in view of some of the facts revealed by the analyses of our data. For example: the extent of the improvement with each ascending chronological age was not the same in the three trials. It was greatest in the second trial, followed by the third (p. 32). Again, bright, average and retarded pupils reacted somewhat differently in the three successive trials. The more intelligent pupils showed their superiority over the less intelligent pupils more frequently or more decidedly in the first or second trial

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1. *Psycho-Motor Norms for Practical Diagnosis*, Psychological Review Company, Monograph No. 94, 1916. See also *Age Norms of Psycho-Motor Capacity*. Journal of Educational Psychology, 1916. pp. 17-24.

than in the third (p. 53). Bright pupils made a more rapid initial adjustment than dull pupils, whence the latter improved more from practice. The best record for the subnormal pupils was 36 per cent better than the poorest, while the corresponding improvement for the normal pupils was only 25 per cent (p. 86). Likewise the lower grades of subnormals improved more with repetition than the higher grades (p. 87). Young normal children, and young subnormal children, whether classified according to chronological or according to Binet-Simon age, gained more from repetition than older ones (p. 87). Young bright children improved from repetition less compared with older bright children, than young backward children improved compared with older backward children. But both normals and subnormals improved more from the first than from the second repetition.

Both normal and subnormal boys surpassed normal and subnormal girls more frequently and more decidedly in the first and second trial than in the third. The girls gained more from repetition in this test. In other words, the boys made a more vigorous initial attack.

The preservation of the original tables has made it possible to compile whole-year and half-year norms based on the averages of the three trials. These averages are given in Tables I and II. Time, however, did not permit the computation of the variability between these averages.

In order to show how subjects score when rated by the four possible criteria, there is given (in Table III) the raw scores in seconds and the age equivalents for the first, second and third trials, for the trial in which the blocks were replaced the most rapidly, and for the averages for the three trials, for 20 consecutive subjects who were given the Seguin form-board test as a part of the regular clinic examination. The age rating is based upon the norms supplied in the corresponding trials in the corresponding whole-year steps in the last four columns of Tables I to XV of the *Psycho-Motor Norms*, and in the last column of Table I of this article. The age equivalents are based on interpolations in all cases in which the scores did not exactly correspond with the age norms. The subjects ranged in chronological ages from 7 to 13, in intelligence ages from 5 to 10, and in I. Q. from .51 to 1.09, with an average of .736, and were classified as follows: 2 normal, 4 backward, 8 borderline and 6 feeble-minded.

A careful inspection of the table indicates that the rating secured in each of the three trials differs considerably for 16 subjects, while the differences are not very marked in the case of four subjects. In



one instance the subject rates 5.2 years in the first trial and 10.5 in the second, a difference of 5.3 years. In another instance the difference between the scores in the first and the third trials amounts to about 3 years. It is evident that, with such differences, it would not be possible to base conclusions solely on the first, second or third trial. On the other hand, there is distinctly more justification for the practice of basing the rating on the best trial of the three, if we may consider the average of the three trials as the most reliable index, for when the ratings based upon the best single trial and the average of the three trials are compared, it is found that there is no difference or practically no difference in the case of 10 subjects. However, there is a noticeable difference in the ratings for 6 subjects, and a large difference for 4 subjects, amounting respectively, to 3.5, 1.5, 1.7 and 1.8 years. It is evident, therefore, that misleading conclusions will occasionally result even when the ratings are based on the best record out of three trials.

When based on the average of the three trials, eight of the subjects rated lower and only two higher than when the rating was based upon the best trial, while the rating was the same or almost the same for the other ten subjects.

The tendency to rate lower by the average score also obtains among both of the subjects diagnosed as normal. Whether this tendency differs among normal, subnormal and supernormal subjects deserves further investigation.

We shall add merely two further analyses, relating to age and sex differences.

#### IMPROVEMENT WITH AGE

In our earlier analysis of the results for the averages of the best record out of the three trials, there was an improvement with each ascending age except in ages 5½, 9, 11, 13, 14 and 16 in the series containing the half-year steps (Table XLVIII) and except in age 13 in the series containing the whole-year steps (Table XLIX). The increase continued to age 17, although it is small in the higher ages. The average gain for each half-year (in the half-year classification) was .70 sec. (pp. 17 and 31), and for each whole-year 1.4 sec. for the normal children. The average yearly gain for the mentally subnormal children was 2.7 sec. in the classification according to chronological age, and 3.5 sec. in the Binet-Simon classification (p. 28).

In the classification based on the averages of the three trials, the im-

provement occurs in all the ages except 9, 11, 13, 14, 16 and  $16\frac{1}{2}$  in the half-year series, and 13 and 15 in the whole-year series. The average improvement per step in the half-year series is .85 sec., and in the whole-year series 1.94 sec. Hence, while the exceptions are rather more numerous in the series based on the averages of the three trials, the improvement in terms of speed is somewhat greater.

The gains in the lower half of the ages compared with the upper half are relatively somewhat greater when the figures are based upon the averages of the three trials than when based on the best single trial. In the latter series the improvement in the lower half of the ages is over twice as large as in the upper half for the half-year series and about  $4\frac{1}{2}$  times as large for the whole-year steps. In the series based on the averages for the three trials, the improvement is about five times as large, amounting to 1.39 sec. in the lower half of the ages as compared with .29 sec. in the upper half of the ages in the series based on the half-year steps, and 3.77 sec. in the lower half of the ages compared with .67 in the upper half in the series based on the whole-year steps.

The previous analysis showed that while there was no gain there was no loss at age 13. When the results are based on the average of the three trials, however, there is an actual loss at this age, although the loss is slight. Previous investigators have reported that 13-year old children are inferior to 12-year old children in various tests.

#### SEX DIFFERENCES

In our earlier analysis based on the best trial of the three the boys were superior to the girls except in a few ages, the average difference amounting to 1.3 sec. for each whole-year and .48 sec. for each half-year, while the difference was less in the subnormal group than in the normal group. When the figures are based on the averages of the three trials the boys' average superiority amounts to 1.14 sec. for each whole-year and .83 sec. for each half-year. Basing the score on the average of the three trials slightly increases the girls' superiority in the whole-year table and the boys' superiority in the half-year table—a curious inconsistency due to the retabulation of the cases. In the *Psycho-Motor Norms* we have summarized experimental results on the sex differences in the capacity scores and variability for various other tests.



TABLE I. NORMS FOR THE SEGUIN FORM-BOARD BASED ON THE AVERAGES OF THREE TRIALS WITH NORMAL CHILDREN

A. Whole-Year Steps.

<i>Ages</i>	<i>Boys</i>		<i>Girls</i>		<i>Both</i>	
	<i>No.</i>	<i>Av.</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>Av.</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>Av.</i>
4 ( $4^0-4^{11}$ )	9	34.78	13	37.64	22	36.46
5 ( $5^0-5^{11}$ )	19	30.94	31	33.82	50	32.73
6 ( $6^0-6^{11}$ )	64	26.19	49	26.84	113	26.47
7 ( $7^0-7^{11}$ )	79	22.52	79	23.14	158	22.83
8 ( $8^0-8^{11}$ )	68	19.53	79	18.89	147	19.19
9 ( $9^0-9^{11}$ )	82	17.19	85	18.59	167	17.19
10 ( $10^0-10^{11}$ )	72	15.97	78	16.40	150	16.19
11 ( $11^0-11^{11}$ )	74	14.57	95	15.80	169	15.26
12 ( $12^0-12^{11}$ )	90	13.79	64	14.25	154	13.98
13 ( $13^0-13^{11}$ )	66	13.98	77	14.24	143	14.12
14 ( $14^0-14^{11}$ )	49	12.95	45	13.34	94	13.13
15 ( $15^0-15^{11}$ )	15	12.53	17	14.28	32	13.46
16 ( $16^0-16^{11}$ )	6	11.52	5	14.12	11	12.70
17 ( $17^0-17^{11}$ )	2	10.66	2	11.80	4	11.23

TABLE II. NORMS FOR THE SEGUIN FORM-BOARD BASED ON THE AVERAGES OF THREE TRIALS WITH NORMAL CHILDREN

B. Half-Year Steps.

<i>Ages</i>	<i>Boys</i>		<i>Girls</i>		<i>Both</i>	
	<i>No.</i>	<i>Av.</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>Av.</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>Av.</i>
4 ( $3^{10}-4^8$ )	3	44.24	6	43.32	9	43.67
$4\frac{1}{2}$ ( $4^4-4^9$ )	6	31.78	5	35.10	11	33.29
5 ( $4^{10}-5^8$ )	6	30.77	9	34.74	15	33.15
$5\frac{1}{2}$ ( $5^4-5^9$ )	11	31.77	17	33.01	28	32.52
6 ( $5^{10}-6^8$ )	26	28.28	31	28.49	57	28.39
$6\frac{1}{2}$ ( $6^4-6^9$ )	39	26.16	20	29.99	59	27.42
7 ( $6^{10}-7^8$ )	43	23.62	46	22.97	89	23.29
$7\frac{1}{2}$ ( $7^4-7^9$ )	40	21.55	34	23.03	74	22.23
8 ( $7^{10}-8^8$ )	40	21.45	43	20.57	83	20.99
$8\frac{1}{2}$ ( $8^4-8^9$ )	28	18.36	39	18.84	67	18.64
9 ( $8^{10}-9^8$ )	40	18.22	51	19.04	91	18.64
$9\frac{1}{2}$ ( $9^4-9^9$ )	38	16.61	39	18.46	77	17.54
10 ( $9^{10}-10^8$ )	38	17.02	29	16.75	67	16.90
$10\frac{1}{2}$ ( $10^4-10^9$ )	46	15.72	44	16.13	90	15.92
11 ( $10^{10}-11^8$ )	33	15.45	48	16.44	81	16.04
$11\frac{1}{2}$ ( $11^4-11^9$ )	37	14.67	48	15.95	85	15.39
12 ( $11^{10}-12^8$ )	40	14.22	38	14.46	78	14.34
$12\frac{1}{2}$ ( $12^4-12^9$ )	50	13.45	41	14.09	91	13.74
13 ( $12^{10}-13^8$ )	44	13.96	32	14.29	76	14.09
$13\frac{1}{2}$ ( $13^4-13^9$ )	29	13.23	38	14.13	67	13.74
14 ( $13^{10}-14^8$ )	31	13.59	42	14.46	73	14.09
$14\frac{1}{2}$ ( $14^4-14^9$ )	20	13.51	22	13.28	42	13.39
15 ( $14^{10}-15^8$ )	12	12.80	16	13.19	28	13.02
$15\frac{1}{2}$ ( $15^4-15^9$ )	7	12.86	4	12.69	11	12.80
16 ( $15^{10}-16^8$ )	7	12.76	5	13.89	12	13.23
$16\frac{1}{2}$ ( $16^4-16^9$ )	6	15.35			6	15.35
17 ( $16^{10}-17^8$ )			3	13.48	3	13.48
$17\frac{1}{2}$ ( $17^4-17^9$ )	1	11.33			1	11.33

TABLE III. COMPARISON OF THE RAW SCORES AND AGE EQUIVALENTS MADE IN DIFFERENT TRIALS WITH THE SEGUIN FORM-BOARD.

No.	Scores					Age Equivalents							
	First Trial	Second Trial	Third Trial	Best of Three	Av. of Three	First Trial	Second Trial	Third Trial	Best of Three	Av. of Three	I.A.*	I. Q.	Diag.
1	45.6	25.4	26.6	25.4	32.5	4.2	5.8	5.3	5.0	5.1	8.0	.76	Bk.
2	19.6	16.4	12.0	12.0	16.0	9.0	9.5	14.5	13.5?	10.0	8.5	.69	Bo.
3	19.8	15.4	15.0	15.0	16.7	9.0	10.5	10.1	9.4	9.4	6.83	.67	M.
4	22.2	18.0	16.4	16.4	18.8	7.7	8.5	8.7	8.0	8.2	8.16	.62	M.
5	37.2	29.2	37.8	29.2	34.7	5.4	5.1	3.5	3.8	4.5	5.5	.73	P.F.M
6	44.8	34.0	25.0	25.0	34.6	4.3	3.8	5.5	5.2	4.5	6.0	.51	P. M.
7	26.0	23.8	20.0	20.0	23.2	7.0	6.4	7.2	6.8	6.8	5.83	.61	P. M.
8	19.0	18.0	15.2	15.2	17.4	9.4	8.5	10.0	9.3	8.8	7.16	.71	Bo.
9	22.0	18.4	17.0	17.0	19.1	7.8	8.2	8.4	7.8	8.0	7.83	.79	Bk.
10	24.6	17.4	17.8	17.4	19.9	7.3	8.9	7.8	7.6	7.7	7.33	.63	M.
11	28.2	22.4	19.0	19.0	23.2	6.7	6.7	7.5	7.1	6.8	5.0	.57	P. M.
12	26.0	25.0	17.2	17.2	22.7	7.0	6.0	8.3	7.7	7.0	7.33	.79	Bo.
13	19.0	18.2	16.0	16.0	17.7	9.4	8.3	9.0	8.5	8.7	6.83	.78	Bo.
14	19.0	18.0	23.0	18.0	20.0	9.4	8.5	6.5	7.5	7.7	8.16	.80	Bk.
15	18.4	15.4	14.0	14.0	15.9	9.6	10.5	11.2	10.4	10.3	8.5	.71	Bo.
16	27.0	15.4	17.8	15.4	20.0	6.8	10.5	7.8	9.2	7.7	10.0	1.09	N.
17	22.6	15.6	13.8	13.8	17.3	7.7	10.3	11.5	10.7	9.0	9.58	.96	N.
18	20.6	19.2	19.8	19.2	19.8	8.5	7.6	7.3	7.0	7.7	7.83	.82	Bk.
19	39.0	15.2	18.0	15.2	24.0	5.2	10.5	7.7	9.4	6.6	7.5	.77	Bo.
20†	34.0	19.2	18.2	18.2	23.8	5.7	7.6	7.6	7.4	6.7	8.0	.71	P.F.M.

\* Intelligence Age, based on Stanford-Binet. † All are boys except Nos. 1, 2, 12 and 15.



## SUPERVISED CONDUCT-RESPONSE OF DELINQUENT BOYS

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In the field of education it has been demonstrated by Terman (6, pp. 92-111) and others that psychological tests provide a means of predicting probable scholastic progress with a considerable degree of accuracy. Little has been done in the study of human behavior, especially among juveniles, in checking up and evaluating the results of conduct in relation to social diagnosis which may be or could have been made. If we are to believe with Pearson (5, pp. 15-17) that the development of science progresses from (a) ideas based on limited experience (ideological), to (b) observing phenomena critically, recording and describing their sequences (observational), finally to (c) measurement by accurate numerical expression of the sequences involved (metrical), and if we are to believe with social psychologists that there is a science of human behavior, we must aim to correlate the factors involved. Our problem then is, having data available—obtained by investigation, observation, and measurement—may we make a social prognosis in any case which will be of scientific and administrative value? The specific phase of this problem with which this study deals is, given adequate diagnosis, are there any factors which appear to afford a basis for estimating probable future response among delinquent boys?

Information has been accumulated concerning the conduct and response of boys under the care and supervision of Whittier State School for an extended period, and correlative data are available through the investigations and tests given by various members of the Bureau of Juvenile Research. The following study presents some of the findings with reference to the usual conduct-response of delinquent boys and the relation that this response seems to have to other factors which may be determined by field investigation or by laboratory diagnosis.

*The material.* Since April, 1919, quarterly reports have been submitted concerning boys in the School by company supervisors on a 5x8 report card which asks the following questions concerning each boy:

1. To what extent has he responded to discipline and supervision while in your company?
2. What favorable traits, characteristics, and habits does he have?
3. What unfavorable traits, characteristics, and habits does he have?
4. Remarks:

Standardized explanation of what was desired and expected, including a five-point classification of response (agreeing with others in use by the School)—*bad, poor, fair, good, excellent*,—was given each supervisor. It was explained also that each report should cover the response of the preceding three months. There are 143 cases for whom we now have consecutive reports for a year or more, and which are otherwise unselected as far as the usual School population is concerned.<sup>1</sup>

For the purpose of this study each report was examined by the writer and given a score from 1 to 5 inclusive, corresponding to the five-point classification referred to in the preceding paragraphs. By obtaining the arithmetic mean (average) of the quarterly response values in each case we have a numerical expression of the average response of each boy for the period during which the reports were obtained. A measure of change in response was desired also and was obtained by subtracting the sum of the first two quarterly response values from the sum of the last two quarterly response values; if the remainder was plus, zero, or minus, it indicated, respectively, improvement, no change, or retrogression in response.

The data available afford information concerning the frequency distribution of response and change in response, the relation between length of stay in the School and average response, the racial factor, the relation of chronological age, mental age, and degree of intelligence to response, temperamental and volitional differences as affecting response, the apparent influence of previous offenses and the quality of the home from which the boy came and the quality of his response. Since the three racial groups considered—White, Colored, and Mexican-Indian<sup>2</sup>—show marked divergencies in many ways, separate distributions and correlations have been made for each race; racial differences in response will be discussed with the subject-matter being considered. Within the confines of an article it will be impossible to present more than the outstanding facts and a few of

1. The median age and I. Q., and the racial distribution is the same as for the usual School population. See Williams (8, pp. 122, 134). That the data afforded by the company supervisors' classification are reasonably accurate and that the boys who maintain good conduct records in the trade details are usually the ones with good response in the companies is indicated by a correlation of .44 (P. E. .053) between response in trade detail and in company. The response scores were examined by supervisors and others acquainted with the conduct record of the boys under consideration and there was unity of opinion that the scores indicated the general quality of each boy's response.

2. Those of Mexican, or Indian, descent.



the more important distributions. Although, in the calculus of correlation by Pearson's formula, a wide-range distribution has been used, it has been necessary to condense the tables in nearly all cases.

*Average response.* The distribution of the average responses for each boy for the period of a year is given by racial groups in Table I. The median response for all cases appears in the "good" group

TABLE I. AVERAGE RESPONSE, BY RACE.

	Total		White		Colored		Mex.-Ind.	
	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
Total	143	100.0	99	100.0	23	100.0	21	100.0
<i>Excellent</i> .... (4.6 plus)	15	10.4	10	10.1	1	4.7	4	19.0
<i>Good</i> ..... (3.6-4.5)	75	52.1	54	54.6	11	46.8	10	47.7
<i>Fair</i> ..... (2.6-3.5)	45	31.3	31	31.3	8	34.8	6	28.5
<i>Poor</i> ..... (1.6-2.5)	8	6.2	4	4.0	3	13.7	1	4.8
<i>Bad</i> ..... (1.5 minus)	--	0.0	--	0.0	--	0.0	--	0.0
Median	3.72		3.73		3.63		3.78	

and has a numerical value of 3.72. None of the boys had a consistently bad record throughout the year but the average for eight cases was poor. Fifteen boys maintained an average response of excellent throughout the period.

Considering the three racial groups we note that the Mexican-Indians have the highest average, the White boys about the same as for the total group, and the Negroes the lowest average response; these respective averages are represented by the medians, 3.78, 3.73, and 3.63. Thirteen per cent of the Colored boys had a "poor" average response as compared to 6.2 per cent for the total; 19.0 per cent of those of Mexican-Indian descent had an "excellent" response, whereas 10.4 per cent of all cases were so classified.

*Change in response.* As previously stated, our data indicated both the average response and changes in response—improvement, no change, or retrogression—by comparing the reports during the first half-year with those for the last half-year in each case. The distribution of these data is given in Table II, by racial groups.

TABLE II. CHANGE IN RESPONSE, BY RACE.

	Total		White		Colored		Mex.-Ind.	
	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
Total	143	100.0	99	100.0	23	100.0	21	100.0
<i>Marked improv.</i> .. (3,4,5)	15	10.4	6	6.1	6	26.2	3	14.3
<i>Slight improv.</i> .... (1, 2)	47	33.4	38	38.3	7	30.4	2	9.5
<i>Stationary</i> ..... (0)	40	28.0	29	29.3	2	8.7	9	42.9
<i>Slight retrog.</i> .... (-1,2)	34	23.3	20	20.2	7	30.4	7	33.3
<i>Marked retrog.</i> ... (-3,4,5)	7	4.9	6	6.1	1	4.3	--	0.0
Median	0.76		0.81		1.21		0.39	

The response of 43.8 per cent improved, while 28.0 per cent of the cases showed no change, and 28.2 per cent failed to maintain their previous average. It should be noted that maintaining a stationary response for the whole group would indicate a "good" record. There is a slight tendency for a larger number to improve than to retrogress, shown by the percentages, by the median for the total (0.76), and by Fig. 1, illustrating the degree of improvement with the length of stay.

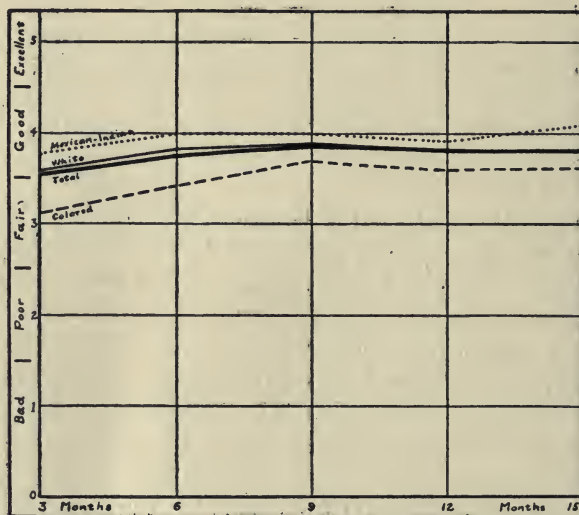


Fig. 1. Average response and length of stay, by race.

The most marked change in the racial groups occurs in the case of the Colored boys, over one-half of whom showed improvement, few remained stationary, and about one-third retrogressed. The Mexican group fluctuates less, either up or down, than the White or Colored boys, maintaining a relatively good response.

An interesting comparison is afforded in Fig. 2 by classifying those having an average response of "good" or "excellent" and those whose response was "fair" or "poor" in relation to the number retrogressing, not changing, and improving, during the last half year. It is seen that in the group having the lower average there is a larger percentage failing to maintain their previous response. In other words, the fact that some boys do poorly at the beginning does not mean that they are likely to improve, but that the proportion of improvement in the inferior group will be about the same as in the superior group, and that more in the inferior group will decline than in



the case of the better boys. This indicates a serious problem inasmuch as a large percentage of these boys are not showing a tendency to measure up to the average standard of response.<sup>3</sup>

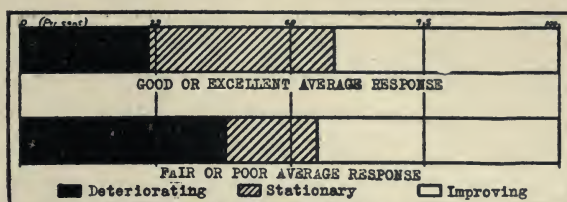


Fig. 2. Change in response during last half year of boys having good or excellent and fair or poor average response.

*Time and response.* It is usually considered that a boy's response will improve by length of stay in the School because of various reasons including the matter of adjustment and the desire to earn parole. That boys do improve in conduct-response with the length of time spent in the School is shown by our data, but the degree of average improvement is not as marked as might be assumed and shows notable racial variations. It should be mentioned that our reports do not include an estimate of response during the time a boy is in the receiving company, usually the first six weeks of his stay in the School.

The general tendency for the whole group to show improvement with length of stay is shown by the heavy line in Fig. 1, and is based on 662 reports concerning the 143 boys for a period of 12 to 15 months. These data show a correlation of .105 (P.E. .025), indicating also only a slight tendency for improvement in response to be related to length of stay.

In considering the racial groups, it is seen that the White average is similar to the total, as would be expected; the correlation is .089 (P.E. .031) for this group. The Negro boys begin with the lowest average, show the most improvement, but in the end do not show as high an average quality of response as the other groups. It has been suggested that subjective opinions of supervisors may have influenced the classification in the case of Colored boys, but the writer does not believe this to be a factor as there is no evidence of racial discrimination in the School. It is believed that the cause is more fundamen-

3. As a matter of fact, it was the primary purpose in undertaking this study to analyze the situation and to make detailed analyses of the problem cases for their administrative value.

tal and relates to a racial characteristic. The correlation between length of stay and average response for this group is .189 (P.E. .061). The Mexican boys maintain the highest average response throughout their stay but show the least amount of improvement. The correlation for this group is .055 (P.E. .069), indicating no evident relationship between the length of time in the School and improvement in response. The ease with which the Mexican boys adapt themselves to supervision possibly accounts for the adaptability of Mexicans for construction work and other routine group activities.

Despite the relatively small amount of improvement shown in relation to length of stay, it should not be concluded that remaining in the School has little value for the boy. The process of habit-formation, the breaking of previous associations, and the educational, vocational, and social instruction afforded are invaluable for future success.

*Chronological age and response.* The relation between the actual age of the boys and their conduct record is indicated by Table III,

TABLE III. AVERAGE RESPONSE BY AGE GROUPS FOR EACH RACE, BY PER CENT.

	Total		White		Colored		Mex.-Ind.	
	11-15	15-19	11-15	15-19	11-15	15-19	11-15	15-19
<i>Excellent</i> .....	13.0	9.4	15.4	8.2	0.0	8.3	22.2	16.7
<i>Good</i> .....	54.5	51.6	57.7	53.4	45.4	50.0	55.6	41.7
<i>Fair</i> .....	28.2	32.9	26.9	32.9	36.4	33.4	22.2	33.3
<i>Poor</i> .....	4.3	6.2	0.0	5.5	18.2	8.3	0.0	8.3

giving percentages in each average response classification group by races and by four-year age intervals. The noteworthy factor in this grouping is that whereas for all cases the boys 11-15 years of age have the largest proportion classified "good" and "excellent," in the distribution for the Colored boys, the older boys have the higher average—over one-half of 11-15 year old Colored boys having an average of "fair" or "poor".

The relationship between the quality of conduct-response and age is practically nil, the coefficients of correlation for the total and each racial group being:

Total	- .032	(P. E. .056)
White	- .065	(P. E. .067)
Colored	.135	(P. E. .115)
Mex.-Ind.	.110	(P. E. .128)

With reference to age and change in response there is a definite tendency for the older boys to improve their response indicating that the older boys profit most by remaining longer as far as conduct re-



sponse is concerned. The tendency is shown by Fig. 3, and by the following coefficients of correlation:

Total	.154	(P. E. .055)
White	.099	(P. E. .067)
Colored	.228	(P. E. .129)
Mex.-Ind.	.266	(P. E. .136)

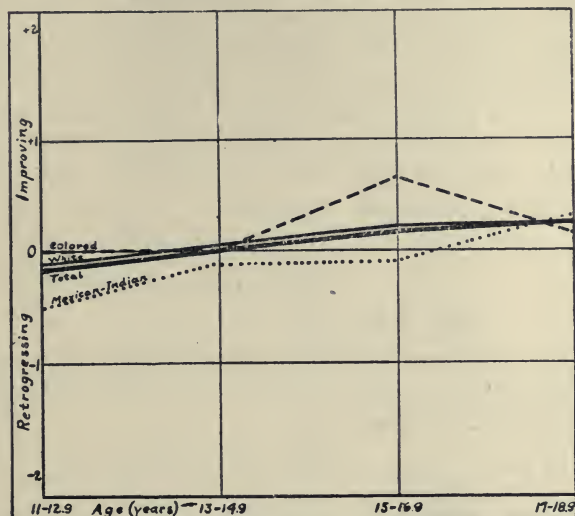


Fig. 3. Change in response and chronological age, by race.

*Mental age and response.* Each of the 143 boys has been given an intelligence examination by use of the Stanford revision of the Binet-Simon intelligence scale by a clinical psychologist. Assuming the constancy of the I. Q., the mental age of each boy in September, 1920, was computed, and gave the mental ages made use of in this study.

TABLE IV. AVERAGE RESPONSE BY MENTAL AGE GROUPS FOR EACH RACE, BY PER CENT.

	Total	Mental Age				
		8-9.9	10-11.9	12-13.9	14-15.9	16-17.9
<i>Total:</i>						
3.6 plus	62.5	72.8	57.5	62.2	63.6	71.4
3.5 minus	37.5	27.2	42.5	37.8	36.4	28.6
<i>White:</i>						
3.6 plus	64.7	63.6	65.2	63.1	66.7	66.7
3.5 minus	35.3	36.4	34.8	36.9	33.3	33.3
<i>Colored:</i>						
3.6 plus	51.5	100.0	46.1	50.0	0.0	100.0
3.5 minus	48.5	0.0	53.9	50.0	100.0	0.0
<i>Mex.-Ind.:</i>						
3.6 plus	66.7	77.8	54.6	100.0	--	--
3.5 minus	33.3	22.2	45.4	0.0	--	--

Table IV gives the percentages for each racial group with "good" and "excellent" (3.6 and above), or "fair" and "poor" (3.5 and below) average response by two-year mental age groups. For the White boys there is practically no variation in quality of response among those of different mental ages. In the case of the Colored and Mexican-Indian boys there is a definite tendency for those of lower mental age to have the better average response. For all cases also the 8-9.9 group has the higher average, the curve swinging down through the 10-11.9 group and gradually rising again as the mental age increases. The coefficients of correlation between mental age and average response indicate the slight tendency for the lower mental age groups to have the better response:

Total	- .093	(P. E. .057)
White	- .082	(P. E. .066)
Colored	- .120	(P. E. .139)
Mex.-Ind.	- .160	(P. E. .144)

There is little apparent relation between mental age and improvement or deterioration in quality of response. The coefficients of correlation for these factors are:

Total	.057	(P. E. .056)
White	.115	(P. E. .067)
Colored	.067	(P. E. .140)
Mex.-Ind.	-.015	(P. E. .148)

*Mental retardation and response.* The intelligence quotient (I. Q.) which is the ratio between mental age and chronological age, indicates the degree of mental variation from the normal which is considered as 100. A distribution of average response and I. Q. groups is given in Table V for all cases. The outstanding fact is that the I. Q.

TABLE V. AVERAGE RESPONSE AND INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENT GROUPS, BY NUMBER AND PER CENT.

	Total		50-69		70-89		90-109		110-129	
	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
Total	143	100.0	30	100.0	76	100.0	34	100.0	3	100.0
Excellent.....	15	10.4	6	20.0	5	6.6	4	11.2	-	0.0
Good.....	75	52.1	12	40.0	41	53.9	20	58.9	2	66.7
Fair.....	45	31.3	11	36.7	26	34.2	7	21.0	1	33.3
Poor.....	8	6.2	1	3.3	4	5.3	3	8.9	-	0.0

group 90-109 (average-normal) shows the higher average response, while the group 50-69 (feeble-minded) and 70-89 (borderline and dull-normal) show a tendency to have a lower average. This is not in accord with Wallin's (7, pp. 248-250) findings that "It is particularly the



backward pupil (instead of the feeble-minded one) who creates the problem of discipline in the schools." The feeble-minded group, while having a larger proportion maintaining an "excellent" average, had approximately the same proportion with "fair" and "poor" average as the borderline and dull-normal group.<sup>4</sup> The coefficients of correlation indicate that there is practically no racial variation and a slightly negative relationship between degree of intelligence and response:

Total	- .110	(P. E. .056)
White	-.091	(P. E. .067)
Colored	-.112	(P. E. .139)
Mex.-Ind.	-.101	(P. E. .146)

There is little relationship between improvement in response and degree of intelligence indicated in the distributions or summarized in the following coefficients of correlation:

Total	- .117	(P. E. .056)
White	.026	(P. E. .068)
Colored	-.126	(P. E. .115)
Mex.-Ind.	-.072	(P. E. .147)

*Temperament and response.* Williams (9, p. 73) has defined and classified temperamental qualities which refer chiefly to the expression of character in the form of mood. The classification ranges from pathological depression to pathological excitation as follows: melancholic, phlegmatic, calm, moderate, active, excitable, choleric. Each of the 143 boys has been classified on this scale and distributions and correlations made showing the interrelation of temperamental kinesis with conduct-response.

The percentages of those having good average response (3.6 and above) and poor average response (3.5 and below) are given in Table VI in relation to temperamental classification as hypokinetic (phlegmatic and calm), moderate, and hyperkinetic (active and excitable). For White, Mexican, and all cases there was practically no variation

4. In an unpublished study by the writer concerning boys deprived of privilege for misconduct at Whittier State School during a year, it was found that boys of superior intelligence were proportionately more frequent and chronic offenders than boys of any other intelligence group. Wallin's (7) statement that it is the "borderline (and backward) cases which cause the most trouble in the institutions, 90 per cent of the disciplinary troubles being attributed to them," is not entirely borne out by our data. Boys of every intelligence group were included among the offenders, the superior cases were proportionately in the majority, and the borderline and dull-normal cases while numerically in the majority did not have an undue proportion in comparison with the usual School population.

in the average response for the different temperamental groups. However, in the case of the Colored boys an unusual proportion of the

TABLE VI. AVERAGE RESPONSE AND TEMPERAMENT FOR EACH RACE, BY NUMBER AND PER CENT.

	Total		Hypokinetic		Moderate		Hyperkinetic	
	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent		Per cent
<i>Total:</i>								
3.6 plus	90	62.9	32	61.6	21	60.0	37	66.0
3.5 minus	53	37.1	20	38.4	14	40.0	19	34.0
<i>White:</i>								
3.6 plus	64	64.7	22	66.7	15	60.0	27	65.7
3.5 minus	35	35.3	11	33.3	10	40.0	14	34.3
<i>Colored:</i>								
3.6 plus	12	52.1	3	37.5	3	60.0	6	60.0
3.5 minus	11	47.9	5	62.5	2	40.0	4	40.0
<i>Mex.-Ind.:</i>								
3.6 plus	14	66.7	7	63.6	3	60.0	4	80.0
3.5 minus	7	33.3	4	36.4	2	40.0	1	20.0

hypokinetic cases are in the lower average response group. The coefficients of correlation indicate the relationship as follows:

Total	- .061	(P. E. .056)
White	- .176	(P. E. .065)
Colored	.315	(P. E. .127)
Mex.-Ind.	.015	(P. E. .147)

There is little apparent relationship between change in response and temperament, indicated by this scale, as shown by the following correlations:

Total	.007	(P. E. .056)
White	- .016	(P. E. .068)
Colored	.098	(P. E. .139)
Mex.-Ind.	.149	(P. E. .145)

*"Will-Profile" and response.* Downey (2) has devised a scale, called the Will-Profile, which has for its purpose the measuring of a number of character traits, chiefly volitional. This scale has been given to one hundred delinquent boys by Bryant(1); seventy-three of these boys were included in the present study. The correlation of average response ratings and the score obtained in the Will-Profile test is—.22. This indicates a slight negative relationship between the two factors. When the relation between the test score and change in response was computed the correlation was found to be .26, indicating that boys with a high Will-Profile score were more likely to improve their response. It is significant that this test gave



a higher correlation for all cases—negative in the case of average response and positive in the case of change in response—than the other general factors, age, retardation, intelligence, and temperament.

*Record of delinquency and response.* On the basis of field investigations and research data on file, the offenses or delinquent acts committed by each of the 143 boys have been classified. For the purpose of this study the offenses have been grouped following the method used by Williams (8, p. 124) as follows: offenses against property (stealing, burglary, larceny, forgery, and arson); offenses against peace and order (incorrigibility, vagrancy, truancy, and drunkenness); and offenses against the person (immorality, assault, highway robbery, and murder).

TABLE VII. AVERAGE RESPONSE AND OFFENSE GROUPS, BY NUMBER AND PER CENT. ALSO CASES HAVING RECORD OF IMMORALITY, INCORRIGIBILITY, AND DEPENDENCY, BY NUMBER AND PER CENT.

	Offenses against						Specific offenses					
	Property		Peace and Order		Person		Immorality		Incorrigibility		Dependency	
	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
Total	127	100.0	115	100.0	25	100.0	17	100.0	80	100.0	30	100.0
Excellent....	13	10.2	9	7.8	--	0.0	--	0.0	5	6.2	2	6.7
Good.....	65	51.2	63	54.9	13	52.0	6	35.4	46	57.5	20	66.7
Fair.....	41	32.3	36	31.2	10	40.0	9	52.8	27	33.8	8	26.6
Poor.....	8	6.3	7	6.1	2	8.0	2	11.8	2	2.5	--	0.0
Median	3.77		3.79		3.63		3.42		3.76		3.80	

In Table VII is presented a tabulation of the offenses committed by each boy in each of the groups by average response. This table also includes two specific offenses, sexual immorality and incorrigibility, and cases of dependency. These last three items were tabulated without relation to the three offense groups.

It is seen by examining the medians that cases having offenses against property and against peace and order have about the same average response (3.77 and 3.79) while the median for those having offenses against the person is somewhat lower (3.63). The percentages are also indicative of the same tendency. None of those with offenses against the person had an excellent record while a larger proportion had a fair and poor average response.

In the case of those who have been sexually immoral the median 3.42 is especially low, being in the "fair" group, whereas it will be remembered that the average for all cases was in the "good" group (See Table I). It was thought that a previous record of incorrigibility

might indicate something with reference to response, but the distribution shows variations as for the whole group. In the case of those considered as being dependent, the average response was slightly higher than for all cases.

TABLE VIII. CHANGE IN RESPONSE AND OFFENSE GROUPS, BY NUMBER AND PER CENT. ALSO CASES HAVING RECORD OF IMMORALITY, INCORRIGIBILITY, AND DEPENDENCY, BY NUMBER AND PER CENT.

	Offenses against						Specific offenses					
	Property		Peace and order		Person		Immorality		Incorrigibility		Dependency	
	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
Total	127	100.0	115	100.0	25	100.0	17	100.0	80	100.0	30	100.0
Marked improv.	14	11.2	15	12.9	2	8.0	1	6.0	11	13.8	3	10.0
Slight improv.	41	32.5	35	30.4	8	32.0	5	29.4	24	30.0	8	26.7
Stationary	35	27.3	32	27.9	6	24.0	3	17.6	26	32.6	11	36.6
Slight retrog.	32	25.0	27	23.6	6	24.0	5	29.4	15	18.7	6	20.0
Marked retrog.	5	4.0	6	5.2	3	12.0	3	17.6	4	4.9	2	6.7
Median		0.76		0.76		0.58		0.17		0.81		0.64

The relation between offenses committed and change in response is shown in Table VIII. The three general groups all show improvement as indicated by the medians, but again for those having offenses against the person, the degree of improvement was less than for the other groups. Considering again the cases having offenses of sexual immorality the average improvement is practically nil, indicated by the median 0.17. It is also seen that of this group 47.0 per cent showed deterioration, while for all cases (See Table II) only 28.2 per cent retrogressed during the last half-year in comparison with response during first half-year for which records were kept. Thus we see that those cases which have had previous history of sexualism not only have a lower average response, but are less likely to improve than the usual population of the School. A detailed analysis of moral character and motivation in the case of the boys with the lowest conduct record indicates a high percentage with morbid mental attitude of an erotic nature. Merrill (4, p. 257) in a study of sexualism among one hundred delinquent boys, states that "the findings strongly support the postulate that sexuality is the most productive source of irregular behavior in childhood." Healy (3) finds that mental conflicts are often a causative factor in misconduct and that they frequently arise through sex knowledge or experience. The need of further study and the possibility of social therapeutics is indicated in this field.



With reference to the change of response in the case of those who were previously incorrigible or considered as dependent, the variation is not markedly different from that of all cases and is not significant for either group. The number of various offenses committed appeared to be of no importance as affecting the average response or change in response.

*Home conditions and response.* Homes of about one-half of the boys had been visited by trained field-workers and the homes graded by use of the Whittier Scale for Grading Home Conditions, devised by Williams (10). This scale includes five items,—necessities, neatness, size, parental conditions, and parental supervision—each of which is graded on a scale of five points. The sum of the scores for the five items gives the Home Index which indicates the quality of the home. There is no apparent relationship between the quality of the home and the response that may be expected of a boy as indicated by our measures, nor is there any definite relationship between any of the five items, mentioned above as comprising the essential factors in considering the quality of a home, and the average response of delinquent boys.

*Response of upper and lower twenty-percentiles.* The upper and lower twenty per cent of cases in the conduct response classification consist of twenty-nine boys each and represent, respectively, those having the best and poorest record. The names were submitted to various supervisors and officers of the School and they unanimously agreed that the two groups represented the boys having good and poor response records.

The chronological ages, mental ages, degree of retardation (indicated by I. Q.), and temperamental classification for each group is given in Fig. 4 by percentages. The small amount of variation in each group for the various factors is evident.

In the figure illustrating distribution for chronological age, the older boys are found in greater proportion in the upper twenty percentile, or good response group, while more of the younger boys appear in the lower twenty percentile, or poor response group. The figure illustrating degree of retardation indicated by I. Q. shows that there is a tendency for those in the "poor" group to have less mental retardation. The one case of superior intelligence was in the lower percentile group. A larger percentage of those with a mental age between 8 and 9.9 years appear in the "good" group, while most of those with a mental age between 10 and 11.9 and all between 16 and

17.9 are found in the "poor" group. There were more of the hypokinetic and fewer of the hyperkinetic cases in "good" group shown by the temperament distribution.

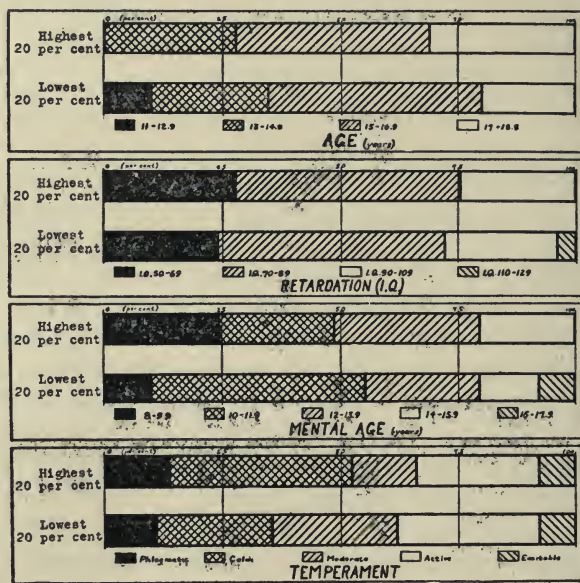


Fig. 4. Upper and lower twenty percentile conduct response groups by age, retardation, mental age, and temperament.

### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

A variation in the quality of conduct-response of delinquent boys under supervision is indicated by records kept for a year or more concerning 143 boys. The findings have been presented and the variations correlated with several factors obtained by investigation, observation, and measurement, and may be summarized as follows:

1. *Response.* The average response of each boy gave a percentage classification as follows,—excellent, 10.4 per cent; good, 52.1 per cent; fair, 31.3 per cent; poor, 9.2 per cent; bad, none. The response of 43.8 per cent improved, 28.0 per cent showed no change, and 28.2 retrogressed.

2. *Race.* The Mexican-Indian boys maintained the highest average response and the White boys were second; the Colored boys had the lowest average response, but showed more improvement than either of the other groups.

3. *Time.* After the first few months there was very little improvement in the quality of response, although the average of "good" was maintained.

4. *Age.* For all cases the younger boys maintained the higher average, although for the Negro boys the opposite was found to be the case. The older boys showed a more definite tendency to improve their record.



5. *Mental age.* Boys with a mental age of 10 to 11 years had a lower average response than any of the other age groups. The best average was obtained by the cases with a mental age of 8 to 9 years. There was a very slight tendency for boys of lower mental age to have a better response record,

6. *Mental retardation.* The only relationship between degree of intelligence (I. Q.) and response is a very slight negative correlation.

7. *Temperament.* Little general relationship but marked racial variations are indicated in correlation of quality of response and temperamental kinesis, —negative for the White boys and positive in the case of Negro boys.

8. *Will-Profile.* A scale measuring volitional qualities indicates that boys with a high score are likely to have a lower average response ( $r = .22$ ). Those having a low score are less likely to improve their response.

9. *Offenses.* Boys having committed offenses against the person, particularly sex offenders, do not respond as well as the average and are less likely to improve. Variety of delinquent acts has no apparent relation to response.

10. *Home conditions.* The quality of the homes from which boys come bears no apparent relation to their probable response.

The results of this study indicate that, taking probable conduct response as a basis for selecting cases for an industrial or vocational school for delinquent boys affording twenty-four hour supervision, the factors of age, mental age, degree of retardation, temperament, and home conditions may be largely ignored. The prognosis is particularly unfavorable in the case of sex offenders. Negro boys are less likely to succeed as well as the average, especially if they are hypokinetic temperamentally. A low score on the Downey Will-Profile scale seems to indicate a tendency for a boy to have a relatively high average response but that he is likely to fail to maintain the same quality of conduct for a long period of time. On the other hand, those cases which have a high score are likely to start poorly but to improve their response. Further experimentation with the Will-Profile scale is desirable purely from its possible administrative value as indicating to a certain extent the response that may be expected in a given case.

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## JUVENILE DELINQUENCY MEASURES ADOPTED BY THE CALIFORNIA LEGISLATURE OF 1921

FRED. C. NELLES

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The recently adjourned session of the California Legislature of 1921 enacted several important bills and amendments which will be of special interest to readers of the *Journal of Delinquency*. Some of these, with which the writer and his associates were especially concerned, will be briefly reviewed here. This article is based on a summary which was prepared at the request of Governor William D. Stephens, and which has been submitted to him.

It may be said at the outset that the situation in regard to the treatment and study of the problems related to juvenile delinquency is more favorable than it has ever been before. There has been a noticeable awakening on the part of the public toward the individual care of unfortunate and neglected children, and groups of interested persons in all parts of the state have stimulated the work by repeated acts of cooperation and encouragement.

This is especially true in regard to the suggested methods of preventive work. Although the Twenty-four Hour School bill was allowed to rest at this session, the popular support which this proposal has gained indicates that the establishment of twenty-four hour schools for the prevention of delinquency cannot be much longer postponed. Delinquency is a serious problem; its seriousness and magnitude are becoming especially noticeable with the improved moral trend of legislation in related directions. It has been amply demonstrated that the correction of individual cases, however necessary, is by no means a complete solution of the problem. Scientific research has pointed out some of the more significant associated factors which must be dealt with. Prevention, by adequate legislative provision, must be looked upon as less expensive than the consequences of neglect.

Although we must await the establishment of twenty-four hour schools, fortunately the existing facilities are becoming better adapted to preventive work through improved legislation. Among the measures which will extend the activities of the state in this direction are the revisions of the Juvenile Court law, the act to establish a Bureau of Placement, the enlargement of the Bureau of Juvenile



Research, and the revision of the Whittier and Preston acts. It may be said that all measures which improve old laws bring us nearer prevention, because the revision of a law can be properly made only in the light of recent advances in the study of the problems involved.

#### BUREAU OF JUVENILE RESEARCH

Under Assembly Bill 992 the California Bureau of Juvenile Research is officially named, representing the further development of the department of research of Whittier State School. The Bureau is still a part of the Whittier organization, and occupies buildings and grounds belonging to Whittier State School. It is authorized to "inquire into the causes and consequences of juvenile delinquency, mental deficiency, and related problems," and to extend its investigations to any part of the state. The Bureau is authorized to affiliate with any university or educational institution or department.

The measure also consolidates in the Bureau of Juvenile Research the research and psychological work conducted in all state institutions for children. The Bureau is authorized to receive endowments, donations, or trust funds devised or bequeathed to its use.

The work conducted by the Bureau is of utmost value to the state. A summary of its useful activities would more than match the size of this article. The findings on individual boys and girls in the three state schools are being used effectively in the education and training of these formerly misunderstood children. In many cases the success of the individual pupils may be largely attributed to the knowledge which the school has gained through these scientific studies.

California is among the leading states in juvenile research, and can well afford to retain that position.

#### IMPROVEMENTS IN JUVENILE COURT LAW

Amendments to the Juvenile Court law were proposed in several bills introduced in both houses, but were later consolidated into one bill (A. B. 749). Chief among the important changes are those pertaining to dismissal from state schools, the optional committing to Preston of boys over 15 years of age, and the extension of wardship for young men over 19 years of age.

Honorable dismissal from a state school by the board of trustees is made a bar to further proceedings under the charge on which the original commitment was made. Thus if a boy is committed upon the charge of stealing, the case automatically ends with his honorable dismissal and he cannot be tried afterwards for the offense. Here-

tofore the power to grant a dismissal that would bar further proceedings has been entirely in the hands of the court. The amendment favors the boy, and justly gives equal weight to honorable dismissal by the school to which he is committed.

The court is given the option of committing boys between 15 and 16 years of age to either the Preston School of Industry or Whittier State School. The former law makes an arbitrary division at the age of 16 years as far as the court is concerned, the older boys going to Preston and the younger boys to Whittier. The superintendents of the two schools have had the power of transferring boys without regard to their ages. The amendment gives the same authority to the committing judge for boys between 15 and 16 years of age. This is in the interests of more effective initial segregation.

The Preston School of Industry is required to receive from Whittier State School any boy over 15 years of age who refuses to respond to the Whittier training. This also means better segregation along the line of moral development, and gives the boy an opportunity to determine his course of conduct.

The court is given the right to retain jurisdiction for two years in the case of court wards who have passed their nineteenth birthday at the time of commitment. This is a "last chance" arrangement to give young men and women a longer opportunity to respond to the state school, and thus avoid the necessity for a prison sentence. Without this provision all state school commitments automatically expire at the termination of minority. This amendment is especially important in the work of the Preston School of Industry and the California School for Girls.

#### BUREAU OF PLACEMENT

Assembly bill 994 establishes a "bureau of placement, care and supervision of minors who have been paroled, furloughed, or granted a leave of absence from state institutions." It consolidates the parole departments of Whittier State School and the Preston School of Industry, and other institutions to be designated by the State Board of Control. The law authorizes the appointment of a director, and provides for the standardizing and unifying of all parole procedure.

Such a bureau has been in practical operation for some time, the parole departments of Whittier and Preston having been consolidated. The legal provision will strengthen this important work and allow for its more efficient development.



REVISED WHITTIER ACT

The original Whittier act was approved March 11, 1889, under the title

An act to establish a school for the discipline, education, employment, reformation and protection of juvenile delinquents in the State of California, to be known as the Whittier State School.

The amendments passed at this session of the legislature (A.B. 991) bring the act up-to-date, and better express the more recent policy of the school. The first section of the new act reads:

There shall be established and maintained in this state a junior state school, an educational institution for boys who are in need of the education, training, care, supervision and moral development therein provided. Said institution shall be known as the "Whittier State School."

The administrative authority of the school under the revision is centralized in the superintendent, through whom the trustees of the school shall act, but whose acts shall be subject to their approval. The superintendent is given power to appoint employees and to fix their salaries. He has full jurisdiction over the institution.

A section in the original law, authorizing the transfer of prisoners to Whittier from San Quentin prison, is repealed. The provision is an evident absurdity at this time.

The superintendent is authorized to organize the school and establish such departments "as he may deem wise or necessary", including a department of instruction, the director of which shall be well trained in modern school administration and shall rank as assistant superintendent. Said department shall have jurisdiction over all courses of instruction, which shall include industrial training. Such courses to be subject to the approval of the state superintendent of public instruction.

Under the previous law the superintendent was authorized to return to the court extremely incorrigible or refractory cases, or any boy incapable of reformation, or so morally deficient as to render his retention detrimental to the interests of said school . . . .

The amended provision states that the foregoing section shall not be construed to authorize the superintendent . . . to return to the court *as feeble-minded* any boy except where such feeble-mindedness has been established by the California Bureau of Juvenile Research or some qualified person approved by said Bureau.

This amendment is designed to protect the boy. It appears that there has been some danger of officers feeling that a boy is too difficult to control in the school, and declaring that he is feeble-minded. Few juvenile courts have psychologists, and there is danger that they

may accept such a declaration and have the boy committed to an institution for the feeble-minded, although he may be of normal intelligence. This cannot happen under the new law, as the case must first be passed on by the Bureau of Juvenile Research or some other authorized examination agency.

A new section in the law provides that boys may be sent to Whittier State School by the juvenile court on probation without the necessity for commitment. This does not prevent the court from committing boys as has been the practice heretofore. It does make it possible for the judge to place a boy in the school on probation. If the boy remains and conducts himself properly he can receive his vocational training and graduate from the school without the court order ever having been made. This is an important step in preventive work. It relieves the boy of the stigma of commitment, but makes him subject to all the rules of the school the same as if he had been formally committed. This is generally conceded to be a step markedly in advance of anything yet attempted in handling of these boys in California.

The new act provides only for the admission of boys to Whittier State School. Originally planned for both boys and girls, the school maintained a girls' department until 1913, when that department became the California School for Girls, now located at Ventura.

#### REVISED PRESTON ACT

The original Preston School of Industry act was approved with the Whittier act, on March 11, 1889. This school is intended for the segregation and training of older delinquent boys, especially between the ages of 16 and 21 years. The school is located near Ione, in Amador County. It is about 40 miles from Sacramento and approximately the same distance from Stockton. The location of the school is to the advantage of segregation.

The revised act (A. B. 829) improves the administrative organization and brings the work of the school nearer its present-day aims. Provision is made for a laboratory under the direction of the Bureau of Juvenile Research. A department of education is established, to be under the direction of a trained person, and courses of study are to be subject to the approval of the state superintendent of public instruction.

#### REFORMATORY DEPARTMENT AT PRESTON

The lack of a reformatory in California for young men has greatly handicapped the work of the institutions, particularly at the Preston



School of Industry, where frequently nature men and serious offenders have been committed because of uncertainty or misrepresentation of their ages. While it is to the advantage of these men to thus avoid a prison sentence, their presence is often detrimental to the interests of the school. This also applies to younger men who do not respond to ordinary methods of discipline. Adequate segregation for such offenders has heretofore been impossible.

The need for this segregation was recognized in 1911, when the legislature authorized the purchase of a tract of land for a reformatory site in Napa County. The protests of the residents of that section resulted in the cancellation of the appropriation for buildings and the land was turned over to the Napa State Hospital. The need for segregation, however, remains.

A "reformatory department" is established at the Preston School of Industry under Assembly Bill 1016. This department is for the

confinement, care, training, discipline and reformation of inmates of the Preston School of Industry who are not amenable to the discipline or instruction of said school or whose extreme delinquency or moral deficiency is such that their retention therein would be detrimental to the best interests of the responsive youths committed thereto or to the educational and moral aims thereof.

The new department is to be a part of the organization of the Preston School of Industry, and under the control of the same superintendent and trustees. It will utilize, so far as practicable, any equipment, buildings, grounds, or employees of the school which are available.

The training policy of the department is outlined as follows:

Instruction in regular school work shall be provided, subject to the approval of the state superintendent of public instruction, but it is the intention of this act that in the reformation of inmates of said reformatory department first consideration shall be given to the acquirements of habits of industry through steady employment at useful and productive labor.

It is thus intended that the department shall be of a strictly correctional character and the law makes no attempt to evade the adoption of hard work as a means. Individual attention must be given to each case, however, and satisfactory response may be rewarded by transfer to the Preston School of Industry proper. The Bureau of Juvenile Research is authorized to establish a special laboratory for the study of these reformatory cases.

## PROVISIONS FOR WOMEN AND GIRLS

The Industrial Farm for Women established by the legislature of 1919, came up for lengthy debate at this session. The bill making appropriations for buildings and support was strongly contested. Near the end of the session the appropriations were granted, and thus segregation for delinquent women is made possible. The institution has already been located in Sonoma County, near the Sonoma State Home.

The budget appropriations for the California School for Girls at Ventura were also granted, and this school will be allowed to develop. The passage of the Industrial Farm act is of importance to the girls' school, as provision is made for transfers to the Farm from the school.

## PROVISION FOR THE FEEBLE-MINDED

It has often been pointed out that the elimination of feeble-minded inmates from the state schools is essential to the proper development of these institutions. The proportion of feeble-minded at the three state schools ranges from 30 to 40 per cent, as shown by investigations of the Bureau of Juvenile Research. The establishment of Pacific Colony, in Los Angeles County, by the legislature of 1917 was a recognition of the need for segregation of these cases. At the present time Pacific Colony is open to receive inmates, and its development is assured by the passage of appropriation bills at this session. The requested appropriations for Sonoma State Home were also allowed.

## CERTIFICATION OF STATE SCHOOL TEACHERS

Notwithstanding the exceptional requirements for success in teaching in the state schools, this teaching has heretofore been unrecognized by the state in granting credit toward life certificates. The work was not evaluated equally with regular public school teaching. At the present time it is necessary for graduates of normal schools and other certificated teachers to have twenty-one months of teaching experience in the public schools before the life diploma can be granted. The State Board of Education has ruled that the state schools are not "public schools" and that teaching experience therein cannot be counted.

The new law (A. B. 538) regarding certification of teachers authorizes the State Board of Education to issue life diplomas to state school teachers in recognition of their experience, but does not require them to do so. This provision, however, will facilitate the work



of the state schools, in that it will allow the use of higher standards in the selection of teachers.

#### NEW DEPARTMENT OF INSTITUTIONS

The general governmental reorganization bills, which were passed at this session of the legislature, included an important measure relative to the administration of state institutions. Up to the present time California institutions have been independently managed, each having a board of trustees, who, with the superintendent of their appointing, were responsible directly to the governor for the conduct, of the institution. Of recent years the state has gradually assumed centralized control of the activities of these local agencies, the state board of control having financial jurisdiction, the state purchasing agent making purchases, the state engineering department erecting buildings, and the civil service commission regulating the appointment of institution employees.

The measure centralizes the administration of institutions in a single department, to be known as the department of institutions, the director of which, appointed by the governor, is given all of the powers and duties formerly vested in local boards of trustees. This power includes the selection of superintendents for the institutions and the control of the general administrative policy.

At the time of this writing the new department is not yet organized. The law is the most sweeping measure ever applied to the state institutions of California. It is intended to promote efficiency and economy, and to take possible a better development of the work. The new organization will have an opportunity to base its procedure on sound scientific work.

# The Journal of Delinquency

Published bi-monthly by The California Bureau  
of Juvenile Research  
WHITTIER, CALIFORNIA

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Entered as second-class matter March 27, 1916 at the Post Office at Whittier, California, under the Act of August 24, 1912. Acceptance for mailing at special rate of postage provided for in Section 1103, Act of October 3, 1917, authorized August 3, 1918.

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Vol. VI

May, 1921

No. 3

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## THE TESTING OF INTELLIGENCE

The publication of Dr. Wallin's article in this issue on the Seguin form-board is suggestive of the elaborate and detailed attention which is now being given in psychological laboratories to the standardization of tests of human intelligence. The use of mental ages, intelligence quotients, and special mental group designations have reached almost every form of education, and the terminology is rapidly spreading in the industrial world. The exactness of this work has built up a science of human measurement.

It is significant that the development of intelligence tests had its origin in experiments with the defective and delinquent classes. The need for knowledge of the mental processes of those who were misfits in society has led to the establishing of several reliable measuring rods which are now everywhere available. The Seguin form-board, concerning which Dr. Wallin offers further standardization data, was originally a device to teach feeble-minded children through development of sense perception. The Binet-Simon scale is an outgrowth of Binet's study of the intellectual processes of the feeble-minded. Among the first practical uses of which the standardized tests were put was the testing of institution groups of delinquents.



There is still much to be learned concerning human intelligence. In a symposium running in current issues of the *Journal of Educational Psychology* leading psychologists voice a unanimous appeal for further research in this important field. The successful training of delinquent children and the development of preventive work in the schools depends largely upon the extent to which we are able to learn more of human intelligence and its practical manifestations. (J. H. W.)

#### THE MEASUREMENT OF INSTITUTION RESPONSE

If juvenile delinquency were due to a single constant factor, by virtue of which delinquent children could be properly considered a "type" of human development, the success of institutions would probably lend itself to relatively easy determination. Uniformity of makeup, however, is far from being the true condition. The variability of these children makes it especially important for the institution to take into serious consideration the individual character of each child. The eagerness with which institution supervisors look for help from the research laboratory testifies to the importance of such knowledge, and indicates the general recognition of the wide distribution of individual differences.

The variability of delinquent children is shown, among other ways, in the nature of their response to the treatment of the institution. Some of them settle down almost immediately to the task of straightening their warped social point of view, respond well to vocational guidance and training, and upon leaving the school take their places in society as useful and productive citizens. Others are slower to respond and some others are apparently unable or unwilling to make any appreciable response at all.

The article by Mr. Willis W. Clark in this issue sets forth some findings of the California Bureau of Juvenile Research in a survey of the conduct-response problem at Whittier State School. Mr. Clark has carefully checked the deportment records of 143 boys, covering a period of two years, and correlated the marks with length of stay, age, intelligence, temperament, race, and other factors. This opens a series of investigations into the causes of good and bad behavior in the institution. Obviously there are other factors not included in Mr. Clark's report which may have important bearing on this problem. At any rate, institutions will welcome exact information and constructive suggestions regarding the improvement of the deportment of their pupils. (J. H. W.)

**MR. NELLES AND CALIFORNIA PROGRESS**

It is gratifying to have Mr. Nelles' comment, in his summary of measures passed by the recent session of the California Legislature, that "the situation in regard to the treatment and study of the problems related to juvenile delinquency is more favorable than it has ever been before." This should encourage not only those of us who have been associated with Mr. Nelles in his work of the past nine years, but also the many others who have looked forward to improved methods in this direction.

In bringing about of the favorable condition of which California may be justly proud, the part played by Mr. Nelles has been of the utmost importance. Entering the work at a critical and most discouraging time, his tireless and unselfish devotion to the upbuilding of a constructive program has had a lasting effect. There are few men who would have braved the storm as well, and fewer who could have displayed the administrative genius which has characterized Mr. Nelles' work.

An important feature of the contribution which Mr. Nelles has made to the work relates to the personal development of the boys who have come under his supervision. There is not a boy who has left Whittier State School during the past eight years who does not have profound respect for Mr. Nelles, and in most cases there has been developed a permanent bond of loyalty and affection. While not all of these boys have reached the goal which Mr. Nelles helped them to formulate, the success record of the Whittier State School has made a remarkable climb. There are many more successes and fewer failures than there have ever been before. That much of this record can be traced to Mr. Nelles' personal encouragement is evident from the facts in these cases.

Most of the measures to which Mr. Nelles' article refers were personally sponsored by him, and were enacted largely upon his recommendation. It is no easy task, during a legislative session, to see that the rights of delinquent and unfortunate children are given a proper place among the thousands of measures which have to be acted upon. During this period Mr. Nelles showed his characteristic ability to promote the interests of the children with whose needs he has become so well informed.

The campaign for the prevention of delinquency by educational means has come to stay. Neither California nor any other state can



afford to delay much longer the necessary public school organization which will prevent boys and girls of normal intelligence from drifting into waywardness. The twenty-four hour school plan is meeting with general approval and many public schools are earnestly appealing to the state for aid in this respect which, as yet, cannot be given. The foundation which Mr. Nelles has laid in the improvement of existing institutions and agencies will save much experimenting, and will furnish a basis for constructive procedure. (J. H. W.)

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## PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

**Bamford, Edwin F.:** *Social Aspects of the Fishing Industry at Los Angeles Harbor*. Los Angeles: Southern California Sociological Society, 1921. pp. 15. Price 20 cents.

In this interesting study such points have been brought out as: the races engaged in the industry; economic considerations of the workers; health conditions; social and home life, and efforts toward Americanization. The author shows the urgent need for better housing conditions, sewage disposal and especially supervision of children while parents are at work. An excellent opportunity for Americanization is afforded at this location. (M. S. C.)

**Blount, Ralph E.:** *The Origin of Life*. Oak Park, Ill. Published by the author, 1917. pp. 31. Price 15 cents.

This little booklet is the outgrowth of a series of lectures given to high school physiology classes. It deals frankly with the physiological phases of sex hygiene, in terms which high school pupils can easily understand. The author contends that this book in the hand of a "clean candid teacher . . . could not possibly be worse than the old practice of silence." (J. H. W.)

**Burmeister, Marie E.:** *Delinquents*. Red Wing: Minnesota State Training School, 1921. pp. 20.

The results of an analysis of conditions affecting boys committed to the Training School are presented in this pamphlet. The proportion of defective social and intellectual conditions among these delinquent boys is indicated in the study by use of the Whittier Scale for Grading Home Conditions and the Stanford-Binet intelligence scale. An interesting discussion of individual cases and the need for further research into the causes and prevention of crime leads to the conclusion that "society must realize that it is dealing not with deliberate criminals, but with weaker brothers and sisters who need to be studied, trained, and helped, some of them throughout life. We hope the time is drawing near when these unfortunates will receive the intelligent care and treatment that comes with understanding, such as we are beginning to give the more easily recognized forms of feeble-mindedness and insanities." (W. W. C.)

**Carlisle, Chester L.:** *The Cause of Dependency, Based on a Survey of Oneida County*. Albany: New York State Board of Charities, Division of Mental Defect and Delinquency, 1918. pp. 465. (Eugenics and Social Welfare Bulletin No. XV.)

This is a valuable contribution to the scientific study of dependency. Based on comparative data relative to the population and economic status of the county, the survey points out in detail some of the the significant local facts relative to dependency, mental deficiency, delinquency, and crime. Disgenic heredity, bad developmental conditions and mental abnormalities are found in large proportions as predisposing causes for public wardship. The remedy appears to lie in the direction of individual scientific study and classification. The State of New York is broadly conceiving its social possibilities in the fostering of such studies. (J.H.W.)

Chute, Charles L.: *State Supervision of Probation*. Albany, N. Y.: State Probation Commission, 1920. pp. 11.

A brief historical resume of the development of state supervision of probation, its value to New York State, and reasons for the advisability of its being adopted more widely. (W. W. C.)

Clark, Thomas Arkle: *The High School Boy and His Problems*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1920.

The everyday problems of the normal boy of high school age are presented and discussed in this book by Thomas Arkle Clark, dean of men of the University of Illinois. In a simple and direct style, and with the authoritative tone of one who has dealt with boys for many years, the author discusses the boy during the high school years from two aspects—the social and educational. His leisure time and how to make the most of it, his school studies and how to get the best out of them are both treated in a manner which shows understanding and insight into this perplexing period—a period where the boy so rarely knows himself. Particular stress is laid on the vice of loafing and the necessity of keeping the boy interested in a variety of things and busy all the time. The relationships between boys and girls of this age are discussed from a sane and normal viewpoint. Particularly readable and full of sound advice are the chapters on "Choosing a Profession" and "Going to College." This book ought to be equally useful to the parent, the teacher, and to the boy himself. (Elizabeth Kellam)

Davenport, Charles B.: *Heredity of Constitutional Mental Disorders*. Cold Spring Harbor, N. Y.: Eugenics Record Office, Bulletin No. 20. October, 1920. pp. 11. (Reprinted from Psychological Review, Sept. 1920.)

This paper is a survey of some of the current and recent literature concerning mental defect and other abnormalities in relation to human inheritance. Feeble-mindedness, representing the lack of the normal-producing factor, probably represents the continuance, through hereditary transmission, of the intellectual insufficiency of the primitive races. It behaves as recessive trait according to the Mendelian laws. Epilepsy, temperament, and dementia praecox also follow a regular order of transmission. Criminality is believed to be due to a combination of biological and social facts, chief among which is native weakness of inhibitory capacity. The evidence indicates that consanguinity *per se* is not a factor in the production of abnormality, except in cases in which close marriage serves to unite already defective strains. The Eugenics Record Office, through the investigations of Dr. Davenport and his staff is rendering a valuable service in the collection of data which will assist in developing a more efficient human race. (J.H.W.)

Doran, Mary S. and Reynolds, Bertha C.: *The Selection of Foster Homes for Children*. New York: New York School of Social Work, 1919. pp. 74. Price 35 cents.



This is the first of a series of monographs in child welfare by the New York School of Social Work and presents the principles and methods followed by the Boston Children's Aid Society, with illustrative cases. Standards, routine, procedure, methods of interviewing, following up references, visiting the prospective home, and forms and questionnaires used by the Society are among the valuable data presented. Agencies engaged in child-placement should refer to this monograph as it doubtless represents the best practice in this field of social work. Despite possible differences in details of method the broad underlying principles of home-finding and appraisal here described are basic and worthy of thoughtful study. (W.W.C.)

Elmer, M. C.: *Technique of Social Surveys*. Minneapolis: University Printing Co., 1920. pp. 114. Price \$1.25.

The recent and far-reaching demands for scientifically conducted social surveys have made a manual of this kind necessary. The author has here given us a convenient and practical working outline for the study of more common problems. A group of social workers, with the aid of this manual alone, could make a valuable survey of any community, large or small. It should be available to all sociological laboratories and to social service workers everywhere. (J. H. W.)

Fernald, Mabel Ruth; Hayes, Mary Holmes Stevens; and Dawley, Almema: *A Study of Women Delinquents in New York State*. New York: Century Co., 1920. pp. 542.

In the light of new conceptions concerning the treatment of both men and women offenders, which regard the penal institutions as answering not only the demand for the punishment of crime and the protection of the state from further crimes, but also the new requirements of the adjustment of the individual to society, the study of the persons who are to be handled becomes a matter of primary importance. The authors of the present book aim to meet this need, and state their purpose as an attempt to furnish a scientific basis for the conceptions regarding women offenders, through investigation concerning the distinguishing characteristics of women convicted in New York state.

The efforts of the investigators were directed toward securing as much information as possible about mental capacities and personal and environmental histories. The subjects were chosen from six institutions in New York state, and represent all types and degrees of delinquency ordinarily found among women offenders. After a great many psychological tests had been tried and carefully weighed by the use of Pearson's judgment scale there were chosen for special consideration the Yerkes-Bridges scale, the Stanford-Binet scale, a group of four language tests and a group of four performance tests. For the purpose of inter-comparison within the investigated group, all these tests were combined by the method of Woodworth into a single measure "Test aggregate".

The social investigation showed that poor economic background and economic inefficiency bear significant relation to the problem of delinquency among women. Contrary to the general belief supported by Healy that "all confirmed criminals begin their careers in childhood or early youth" there was found a small percentage of women convicted as juvenile delinquents.

In the investigation of mental capacity the factors bearing on delinquency were carefully studied. Both in the literature of criminology and in that of feeble-

mindfulness, the opinion is often expressed that there exists a close connection between criminality and mental deficiency. The results of the present investigation show that the average mental capacity of the delinquent women is lower than that of any groups of non-delinquents investigated by others, but that the difference is less than might be expected. There is an extensive overlapping of delinquent and non-delinquent groups; the difference between the means of the delinquent and non-delinquent groups is not great. A comparison between delinquent women and men in corresponding institutions did not reveal any important difference. Inter-comparison within the group studied does not support the often emphasized opinion that intelligence largely determines the type and seriousness of the offense. The relationship between mental capacity and various aspects of the criminal career, such as degree of recidivism, age at first offense, nature of offense, was found to be very slight. There is more difference, with respect to intelligence, between colored and white, between those who have been in domestic service, and those who have not, than between recidivists and first offenders, or between felons and misdemeanants, or between offenders against chastity and offenders against property. The difference between those who have been sexually promiscuous and who have not, even though it exists, is not so great as it is usually supposed to be.

As general conclusions reached by authors we note the statement that there is no well defined type of individual which we may call "the delinquent woman," and that, contrary to Goring, environmental factors are probably as important as constitutional.

On the whole the book impresses one as being a good piece of scientific work. The conclusions are stated without pretension or dogmatism, and the extent of their application is clearly pointed out. (*G. Lantzeff*)

**Fuller, Elizabeth:** *The Mexican Housing Problem in Los Angeles*. Los Angeles, Cal: Southern California Sociological Society, 1920. pp. 11. Price 15 cents.

This study presents the findings concerning conditions in fifty Mexican homes in a selected district of Los Angeles. Indicative of the conditions found a few numbers and percentages from the tables are given:

Average number of persons per house.....	5.78
Average number of rooms per house.....	3.32
Average monthly rental per house .....	\$9.80
Families with more than two persons per bed .....	64 per cent
Houses sheltering more than one family.....	28 per cent
Houses without gas.....	92 per cent
Houses without electricity.....	72 per cent

The writer presents first hand descriptive information concerning these families and concludes that some action should be taken, particularly in providing better homes, if Los Angeles is to prevent the growth of a slum area. (*W. W. C.*)

**Hill, David Spence:** *An Introduction to Vocational Education*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1920. pp. 483.

Dr. Hill introduces a broad field of education which should not be considered as limited by use of the term "vocational," since this is broadly interpreted to mean "preparation for and participation in occupations of social value." That vocational education is something more than trades training, both in content and effect, is thoroughly discussed, with consideration of the ethical, philosophical and historical ideals which must be linked with the more practical teaching of shop and school room. The book is an encyclopedia and laboratory manual in the field of



vocational education as it lays open a great number of unsolved problems which are still to be worked out on the basis of the already studied conditions. The organization of the book is particularly practical for the student of education, setting forth discussion, summary, problems and bibliography successively for each topic; and leading, by topics, from the broader basic consideration down through the more detailed problems and ending with discussion of the most modern of the methods and relationships involved in further work in the field. A valuable contribution to both educational and sociological literature. (K. M. C.)

**Hutchinson, Emilie Josephine:** *Women's Wages.* New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1919. pp. 179. Price \$1.50.

A discussion of the wages of industrial women and the measures suggested to increase them. The facts of wage conditions in the different industries and the arguments for and against minimum wage legislation are well set forth. The question of trades unionism as related to women's wages and the need and value of vocational education are discussed. The author concludes that there is no one panacea for present evils. Minimum wage legislation, while offering the most immediate help will give only partial relief. It will not adjust irregularity of employment nor put the woman worker upon a satisfactory basis as regards her weekly or yearly budget. On principle, the author believes that wage legislation should apply only to minors and that adult women should not be classed as children. She sees hope in the human element that the personnel experts and industrial counsellors are working with, in the effort toward vocational education, in the increasing power of working women's organizations and in the new spirit shown in the women workers themselves. The idea that final adjustment must come gradually and largely from within the ranks rather than through legislation seems fundamentally sound. (J. M.)

**Jenkins E. C. B.:** *Crime: Its Cause and Cure.* Kansas City: Published by the author, 1919. pp. 31.

This is a series of brief articles prepared by a police commissioner for the purpose of drawing public attention to the need for an awakening social conscience regarding crime and its elimination. It is encouraging to know that the modern police official sees the need for preventive measures and scientific treatment. (J. H. W.)

**Judge Baker Foundation:** *Harvey Humphrey Baker, Upbuilder of the Juvenile Court.* Boston: Judge Baker Foundation. Publication No. 1, 1920. pp. 133.

This report is in the nature of a memorial to Judge Baker under whose leadership the Boston Juvenile Court was developed to a high level of efficiency. The report includes a biographical sketch by Roy M. Cushman, a review of the work of the court for a period of five years, a statement of Judge Baker's views on juvenile court procedure, and a report by Dr. William Healy and Dr. Augusta F. Bronner on the first two years' work of the clinic under their direction, known as the Judge Baker Foundation. The clinic has investigated 1200 cases, and is making thorough-going individual analyses by way of research into the causes of delinquency. It is evident that Dr. Healy and Dr. Bronner have carried to Boston the same spirit of scientific endeavor which characterized their work with the Juvenile Psychopathic Institute of Chicago, and those who know them can appreciate the significance of that spirit for the development of their present laboratory. (J. H. W.)

**Kempf, Edward J.:** *Psychopathology*. St. Louis: C. V. Mosby Co., 1920. pp. 762. Price \$9.50.

Based on the widely expounded theory that the neuroses and psychoses are produced by the autonomic-affective cravings, the extensive work of the author has led to the development of this text. It is written for professional students and practitioners, and contains an enormous fund of information derived from careful observations. The successful treatment of the psychopath depends upon the extent to which the institution can direct his desires into useful channels. "Not until every institution has erected a vocational department in the most imposing architectural structure on its grounds and maintains an adequate vocation bureau, the sole business of which is to secure employment for its efficient members in the factories, shops and fields of the people of the state, can the physicians, law-makers, and custodians of the state be considered to have fulfilled their obligations to its mentally diseased citizen." This book should be available to all scientific laboratories dealing with human abnormalities. (J. H. W.)

**Kimmins, C. W.:** *Children's Dreams*. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1920. pp. 126. Price \$1.60.

A most interesting study of the dreams of nearly 6000 children ranging in age from 5 to 16 years from infant, elementary, central, secondary, industrial, blind and deaf schools of England. The analysis shows in a general way the type of dream peculiar to children of different ages, the variation of interests from year to year and the influences of environment upon the dream. The work has been carefully done and throws much light upon the dream life of normal children. The questions raised by the findings are many and fascinating. It is to be hoped that other investigators will be inspired to follow out some of the lines of inquiry opened by them. The author is perhaps quite justified in his feeling that such a study may "yield a harvest as abundant in educational procedure as that obtained by psycho-analysis in the realm of pathology." (J. M.)

**Klein, Philip.** *Prison Methods in New York State*. New York: Columbia University. Studies in History, Economics and Public Law, 1920. Vol. XC, No 1. pp. 420.

As a part of a more comprehensive study of the history of organized social work in New York State, this study traces the development of methods having to do with penal, reform, and correctional work. It begins with a discussion of theories of punishment, outlines the development of the first prisons, and traces the evolution of the treatment of offenders to the present day. The study is exhaustive, and throws much light on some of the practical but unsolved problems which confront those who bear the burden of operating public institutions. Those who would avoid the mistakes of the past, and profit from the valuable experience of some of the New York institutions, will find this volume helpful and instructive. (J. H. W.)

**Lapage, C. Paget:** *Feeble-Mindedness in Children of School Age*. Manchester, England: The University Press, 1920. pp. 309. (Second edition) Price \$4.00.

This is a revision and improved presentation of the author's previous work on the same subject. Dr. Lapage is an English physician, and has been many years in association with some of the larger institutions in England. The medical and physiological phases of the problem are especially well treated, as are some of the



institution problems which are discussed in detail. A valuable part of the book is an annotated list of institutions for the feeble-minded in England and the United States. There are several excellent photographs representing the different grades of mental deficiency. This book may be highly recommended to physicians, psychologists, and institution workers. (J. H. W.)

**McMillan, Margaret:** *The Nursery School*. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., 1919. pp. 356.

The nursery school developed in England during the war, being originally a co-operative plan of mothers engaged in war work. In August, 1918, nursery schools were authorized by law as a part of the English educational system. The author believes that the experimental stage has passed, and that it has been fully demonstrated that children can be properly and economically cared for during pre-school years by the nursery school. The book presents in an interesting manner the practical workings of these schools, and cannot fail to be a factor in the encouragement of better training for young children. Teachers and parents will find many helpful suggestions in it. (J. H. W.)

**MacMurchy, Helen:** *The Alms*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1920. pp. 178. Price \$1.50.

This latest work from the pen of Dr. MacMurchy comprises a study from the viewpoint of a psychologist of characters in literature who had been attributed with marked asocial tendencies by their creators. The study is, of course on a wholly hypothetical basis, and although it is interesting reading, hardly should be classed as a scientific contribution. The concluding chapter makes a popular appeal for the feeble-minded and urges that society should give them opportunities which will, at least in part, enable them to overcome the hereditary burden with which they are cursed. Their offspring should be limited, and vocational training should take the place of formal pedagogy. If the state intercedes to provide for the protection of itself against the menace of the feeble-minded, the latter can be so cared for that they will lead happy, safe and moderately useful lives. (H. P.)

**Miller, Arthur Harrison:** *Leadership*. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1920. pp. 174. Price \$1.75.

An elementary analysis of the factors constituting leadership, and a discussion of the relationship of the leader to subordinates and other members of his organization, by a major of the U. S. Army. The study draws most of its illustrations from army life and relates particularly to qualities most to be desired in an officer and to the general phases of leadership which have a direct bearing on the attaining of high morale and the successful management of men. (W. W. C.)

**Nutt, H. W.:** *The Supervision of Instruction*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1920. pp. 277.

The principles underlying supervision are divided into methods, devices, and technique. The first principle of method is that teaching is a cooperative enterprise and must be carried out by teachers and supervisors having a common knowledge of the situation. An outline of this necessary common knowledge is given for elementary and secondary schools with special emphasis upon the physiological, psychological and social traits of the child, as well as upon the technique of method, the standards for judging results, and the general underlying principles of classroom management. His other principles of method may be summed up as an

application of the idea of "learning to do by doing" and through this developing confidence and initiative. Approximately 40 per cent of the book is given over to a discussion of devices. This space is well used in helping to solve some of the problems which arise out of the methods of supervision indicated above. The uses and abuses of various devices are pointed out, and valuable suggestions are given for the guidance of the teacher and supervisor. Under the head of "Technique of Supervision," a critical analysis of the supervisor's actual work is given, together with suggestions for measuring the efficiency of such work. The book is well planned for classroom use in training departments and for individual study.

(Homer Davis)

**Parmelee, Maurice:** *Criminology*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1918. pp. 514.

It has been the intention of the author of this book to survey the field of criminology from the point of view of social control, in the light of recent developments in the sciences of biology, psychology, and sociology. This survey has been admirably made. The origin and evolution of crime is traced, and related to the causal factors associated with environment, mentality and social progress. While believing that crime as a social phenomenon will always exist, the author is hopeful of the prevention or reduction of some of the social abnormalities which face the world at the present time. The prevention of crime will depend, he holds, upon the general improvement of the social fabric though a rationalization of our scheme of living, including the abolition of "antiquated repressive laws." This book should come into the hands of all modern students of the problem of criminality. (J.H.W.)

**Pollock, Horatio M.:** *Decline of Alcohol and Drugs as Causes of Mental Disease*. New York: National Committee for Mental Hygiene, 1921. Reprinted from *Mental Hygiene*, VI-1, Jan. 1921. pp. 123-129.

A study of the effect of the prohibition amendment on insanity in New York state, based on first admissions from 1908 to 1920. During the first five years the averages varied little but in 1914 there was a marked drop; in 1917 a marked increase; and in 1920 a rapid decline. The percentage of alcoholic admissions dropped from 10.8 in 1909 to 1.9 in 1920. The annual rate of new cases of drug insanity has also declined. This amendment has been an asset to the country as a whole and it is hoped that the burden of mental disease will become lighter. (M. S. C.)

**Reed, Anna Y.:** *Junior Wage Earners*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1920. pp. 171.

The magnitude of the problem of dealing with the employment of junior wage earners in the United States is well brought out in Mrs. Reed's latest book. The very limited extent to which the public schools succeed in marketing their product, i. e., in placing their eliminates or graduates in gainful employments is criticised severely. Not only do the schools fail to hold 50 per cent of the junior population but they likewise fail to fit them for the places which they must occupy in commerce and industry. The data presented in support of these contentions have been gathered by the Junior Division of the United States Employment Service, and the implication of the book is that this Service should be the agency to head up all phases of educational and vocational guidance and placement. There is perhaps a too persistent emphasis upon "Placement" as the *be all and end all* of vocational guidance, but the facts presented are significant and readers are free to arrive at their own conclusions if not satisfied with those suggested by the author. (W. M. P.)



**Ross, Edward Alsworth:** *Principles of Sociology*. New York: Century Co., 1920. pp. 708.

Containing fifty-seven chapters classified under five headings,—the social population, social forces, social processes, social products, and sociological principles—this volume presents a dynamic analysis of human relations. It is particularly valuable because of the practical treatment of the subject matter and the cumulative experience of the author. Description and explanation are employed in indicating the varieties of social phenomena and their implications for social policies. This book is destined to take a place among the leading text and reference books in the field of sociology. (W. W. C.)

**Seashore, Carl E.:** *A Survey of Musical Talent in the Public Schools*. Iowa City: University of Iowa Studies in Child Welfare, Vol. I, No. 2 November, 1920. pp. 36. Price 25 cents.

In an introductory note Dr. Bird T. Baldwin presents this monograph as an example of the applied scientific work in which the Iowa Child Welfare Station is engaged. It represents a study of the distribution of musical talent among public school children and the relation of that talent to other factors. The reliability of Dr. Seashore's method for measuring ability is fully demonstrated, and the method has already been put to good practical use. Dr. Seashore finds that musical talent can be discovered and measured at any early age; that it apparently has little correlation with intelligence; and that it is inherited in the form of separate abilities, any of which may be transmitted independently. (J. H. W.)

**Secrist, Horace:** *An Introduction to Statistical Methods*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1920. pp. 482.

The development of statistics in university and college courses, together with the increasing demand for statistical treatment of practical business problems calls for the preparation of an elementary text of this kind. The author has treated a difficult, and, to many persons, uninteresting subject in a creditable manner. Particularly good are his chapters dealing with the practical uses of statistics, tabular and graphic presentation, and the principles of index number making. The book may be recommended to the use for which it is intended, and would be a valuable addition to any statistical or scientific library. (J. H. W.)

**Sheffield, Ada Eliot:** *The Social Case History. Its Construction and Content*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1920. pp. 227. Price \$1.00.

This volume presents the methods of most effectively recording and presenting data relative to the diagnosis and treatment of social maladjustments and should be of special value to child and family welfare agencies. The chapter headings are: The purpose of a social case history; A basis for the selection of material; Documents that constitute the history; Composition of the narrative; The narrative in detail; The wider implications of case recording. By following the suggestions of the author, the case worker will doubtless "clarify her own social concepts and leave documents contributing something to the integrated insight of social science." (W. W. C.)

**Slingerland, W. H.:** *Child Welfare Work in Colorado*. Boulder: University of Colorado Bulletin, Vol. XX, No. 10, Oct. 1920. pp. 174.

This report embodies the findings of a study of public and private agencies and institutions in Colorado having to do with the care of dependent, delinquent and

defective children. The report gives statistical and descriptive data relative to the existing institutions, offers suggestions toward their improvement, and includes a proposed law through which all such institutions and agencies are put under a single state administrative board. (J. H. W.)

Stoddart, W. H. B.: *Mind and its Disorders*. (Third Edition) Philadelphia: P. Blakiston's Son & Co., 1919. pp. 580. Price \$6.00.

In this latest edition of his standard text-book the author testifies to a fundamental change in his attitude toward mental disease, having "fully accepted the Freudian theory." This acceptance, he states, is based on extensive investigation, in which he personally applied the psycho-analytic method to many patients. The book is in three parts, each comprising a series of chapters. Part I deals with *Normal Psychology*; Part II, *The Psychology of the Insane*; Part III, *Mental Diseases*. Many illustrative cases are given, as well as practical working directions for psychiatric procedure. A short chapter on *Idiocy and Imbecility* describes the chief physical attributes of the lower grades of mental deficiency, which the author looks upon as essentially a condition of arrested intellectual development, which cannot be brought to normal by education or training. Special classes in public schools are urged. (J. H. W.)

Thurston, Henry W.: *Delinquency and Spare Time*. Cleveland Recreation Survey. Cleveland, Ohio: The Cleveland Foundation, 1918. pp. 189.

A case study of 124 typical delinquents indicates that a clear relation between delinquency and spare time habits exists in 75 per cent of the cases. This relationship is of five kinds: (1) acts growing out of habitual play activities; (2) acts suggested by habitual spare time practice; (3) acts committed in order to get money for recreation; (4) acts committed to qualify the child for certain recreational opportunities afforded by a recognized play group; and (5) acts expressing a reaction against school, work, or both. Delinquency centers were found to have definite relation to topography of Cleveland, particularly gullies, lake shore, railroad yards, etc. Recommendations of a constructive nature are presented in the monograph and are indicative of methods meeting the recreational needs of children, preventing delinquencies which arise through a lack of wholesome opportunities and supervision of spare-time activity. (W. W. C.)

Webb, Jesse P.: *The American Prison System*. Salem, Ore: 1920. pp. 262. Price \$2.00.

This book is exactly what the author states it to be: a frank, sharp criticism of the prison system from the standpoint of a prisoner—"the results of ten years actual service in the ranks of the grey brotherhood." Although somewhat dogmatic at certain points, the reader feels that the author has observed accurately some of the weak spots in the penal system. Political control, biased public attitude, inhuman jail confinement, unfair legal tactics, arbitrary sentences, lack of scientific segregation, and capital punishment are looked upon as being responsible in part for the failure of the penal system to make law abiding citizens out of social offenders. The author praises the recent reform developments at the Oregon State Penitentiary, with which institution he has evidently acquired a close acquaintance. The attitude of some prison reformers may be somewhat shaken if they will take time to read this book. (J. H. W.)

Williams, Fred V.: *The Hop-Heads*. San Francisco: Walter N. Brunt, 1920. pp. 133. Price \$1.50.



A very realistic description of the users of cocaine, morphine and opium. By spending some time with the addicts the author has found how willingly some would refrain from the drugs if only a humane treatment could be administered which would be within reach of those in poor financial condition. The treatment in the prison does not help but only makes worse the craving for the drug. If the addicts have not been criminals from the start, many soon become so, as the use of the drug makes it impossible for them to compete in any legitimate form of earning a livelihood. Drug users should be considered as victims of a definite disease, not as offenders. In New York many of the drug addicts were brought to the attention of the physicians under the provisions and regulations of the public health laws. It might be well for California to attempt such a scheme which would eventually put the street peddler out of business. (M. S. C.)

Wimmer, August: *Psychiatric-Neurologic Examination Methods*. Translated by Andrew W. Hoisholt. St. Louis: C. V. Mosby Co., 1919, pp. 177. Price \$2.00.

This is intended as a technical manual for psychiatrists and physicians. The author has made a commendable effort to utilize comparisons of abnormal states with their normal equivalents. Chapter I deals with Anamnesis; Chapter II, The Psychic State; Chapter III, The Somatic State. In the hands of the trained psychiatrist it will be found a useful guide. (J. H. W.)

Woodrow, Herbert: *Brightness and Dullness in Children*. Chicago: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1919, pp. 322

Contrasting an example of genius with an example of imbecility, the author prefaces his text with an appeal for more knowledge of the great mass of individuals whose intellectual status lies between these extremes. He outlines the essential facts of psychology as applied to present-day educational practice, and encourages the wider use of scientific methods in the classification of school children. Any teacher, school principal or student of psychology can here find sound and reliable discussion of the problems of individual differences. The book is one of the best treatises on educational psychology of recent years. (J. H. W.)

Woods, Arthur: *Policeman and Public*. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1919, pp. 178. Price \$1.35.

The author of this book is an able and successful police executive. The subject matter was prepared originally for a series of lectures at Yale University, and is now made available for the enlightenment of the public mind toward the problem of law enforcement. With all its limitations, the police department is the most effective means yet devised for protection against lawlessness, and with a more cooperative public the hope for better police systems may be realized. (J. H. W.)

## PERIODICAL LITERATURE

**The School and the Juvenile Court.** Schools are awakening to their own responsibilities in developing the child's character as well as his mind and body, and the importance of preventive work that will avoid the necessity of bringing children into court is being recognized. The awakening of the school finds expression chiefly in the socializing of the attendance departments. The trained social worker, equipped to diagnose conditions responsible for non-attendance and other school difficulties and to utilize the resources of the community in combatting these factors, is supplanting the old-time truant officers. The field of the juvenile court is not limit-

ed to the problems of school children, but includes dependency and neglect as well as delinquency and a wider range of age groups. There is a marked tendency toward the broadening of the jurisdiction of the juvenile court and toward the further step of including this court in a larger court dealing with all legal problems relating to the family. A cooperative program for the prevention and construction treatment of juvenile delinquency is being developed in the school departments of several of our larger cities.—*Emma O. Lundberg*. Survey, XLV-20, Feb. 12, 1921. pp. 703-704. (W. W. C.)

**A Comparative Study of New York City and Country Criminals.** City criminals are usually younger, somewhat smaller and show a slightly higher median mental age. A large percentage are Catholics. More than half have been in Juvenile institutions or reformatories. Home ties are weaker—few of them (only 20 per cent) are married. Country criminals are older, taller and more robust and show a slightly lower median mental age. Seventy-four per cent are Protestants. Family life plays a larger part—(44 per cent married.) A few have been in juvenile institutions. More of them are first offenders and more of them are accidental offenders showing "no criminal tendencies." With both classes, crimes against property predominated but the country prisoner does not often give the regular progression—truancy, burglary, assault, robbery, murder. The habitual country criminal shows previous convictions for lighter offenses. Reckless violence is not so frequent with country as with city criminals.—*J. F. Vullenmeier*. Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology, XI-4, Feb. 1921. (J. M.)

**Passing of the Juvenile Court.** The correction and reformation of incorrigible children is an educational function, not a judicial one, and should be supervised by the school. It is inevitable that the administrative work of the juvenile court will be transferred to other more adequate agencies and, as the purely judicial function of determining whether the child is delinquent could just as well be discharged by the courts formerly in existence as they are now by the juvenile or family courts, the juvenile court will die a natural death. However though it the public has become educated to the need of scientific treatment of children guilty of anti-social conduct and the very deficiencies of the court have pointed the way to a more intelligent and efficient system.—*Herbert M. Baker*. Survey, XLV-20, Feb. 12, 1921. p. 705. (W. W. C.)

**The Felon from the Standpoint of the Judge.** The criminal should be regarded as a moral patient rather than as a social outcast. We may distinguish several sorts of criminals. First, those of unsound mind who are little or not at all responsible for their acts. Second, the born criminals. Some of these should be barred from society for an indefinite time. Third, the habitual criminal who is such mainly because of association and environment. Fourth, the occasional criminal, the victim of sudden temptation. He should not be permitted to lapse into an habitual criminal. Fifth, the criminal of passion whose first offense is often his only one. These different classes require different treatment. The purpose of punishment is threefold. It should primarily be corrective for the purpose of aiding the felon. After correction punishment should act as a deterrent and warning. Lastly, punishment is the protection of society. The prisoner should come under direct observation of specialists skilled in sociology, psychology, criminology and mental and physical diseases.—*Daniel H. Sowers*. Ohio State Institution Journal, III-3, Jan. 1921. pp. 10-15. (J. M.)



**Saving the Child.** The juvenile court judge is a judge in the legal sense only for the moment he adjudges a child delinquent and makes him a ward of the state. The child is not tried for any offense, the court merely determining whether the child has committed an act or series of acts that warrant the state in assuming the duty of giving him the care, protection, education, and training that the parents for some reason have been unable to give him. However, 90 per cent of the juvenile courts fail to avail themselves of modern facilities for diagnosis and prognosis because the judges have proceeded on the assumption that the child is a juvenile criminal. In addition to that of providing relief in particular cases, it is the function of the juvenile court, enjoined both by the letter and spirit of the law, to find the causes of delinquency and dependency and to disseminate the knowledge and information thus acquired.—*Charles W. Hoffman*. Survey, XLV-20, Feb. 12, 1921. pp. 704-705.

(W. W. C.)

**Expert Testimony in Criminal Procedure Involving the Question of the Mental State of the Defendant.** A committee has recently formulated a statute which was adopted by the American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology. This provides that the judge be empowered to summon from one to three expert witnesses in a case involving a question of insanity. The prisoner, pending trial, to be kept in a state hospital for the insane and opportunity provided for observation and examination. The experts to make full report at the trial. The putting of this statute into practice would be a step in the right direction, but would still leave many difficulties unsolved. The general principle to work toward is that of approaching the case with the criminal rather than the crime as the prime consideration. Theoretically the function of the jury should be to decide whether the accused did or did not commit the antisocial act in question leaving it to the state to prescribe the treatment which, after full consideration of the findings of skilled specialists, seems best fitted to the case. In this way many potential criminals might be saved their careers of crime and many anti-social characters could be kept confined at useful occupations instead of being forced to take up their old practices again with all the resulting waste of their crimes and of the court procedure necessary to reconfine them for another period.—*William A. White*. Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology, XI-4, Feb. 1921. pp. 499-511. (J. M.)

**The Essential Sociological Equipment of Workers with Delinquents.** All those who have assumed leadership in promoting public welfare, peace, and sanity need to understand the fundamentals of social science. Our failure in dealing with social problems has been due to our looking at man individually and collectively from the mechanistic and legalistic rather than from the humanistic, or sociological point of view, and to our being preoccupied with the finished product—a criminal, a juvenile delinquent, a defective type—and failing to interest ourselves in the process by which the product is made. The minimum equipment for social agents are—(1) a thorough understanding of the normal life of society and then applying these principles to the handling of pathological and delinquent types; (2) a knowledge of social structure and our fundamental social institutions; (3) an understanding of the institutions and forces which exist or might be developed for social control or social pressure; and (4) an insight into the distinctly economic aspects of social science, including "industrial repatriation" and vocational guidance. Only a profounder education in the social sciences will enable us to use our present

defensive machinery of courts, correctional institutions, and protective agencies as they should be used or to modify and improve them as their needs indicate.—*Arthur J. Todd*. *Social Hygiene*, VII-1, Jan. 1921. pp. 13-22. (W.W.C.)

**The Felon from the Standpoint of the Civilian.** The problem of growing industrial unrest and crime and the increase in prison populations demands a larger sense of individual responsibility from the members of society at large. The civilian must take a wholesome and practical interest in the felon. He should satisfy himself: First, that the prison environment is such as is conducive to rehabilitation and to the inculcation of a higher sense of social obligation; Second, that the work the felon does while in prison shall be that which is most profitable to the state and to his family; Third, that his parole or release shall be considered as a part of society's and industry's obligation to give him the necessary opportunity for continued well being and usefulness in the social and industrial order. To these interests every patriotic citizen should lend support. The good business sense of our people should recognize their need. The human impulse gives them sanction.—*William A. Grieves*. *Ohio State Institution Journal*, III-3, Jan. 1921. pp. 5-10. (J. M.)

**The Psychological Study of the Delinquent Child.** It should be realized that juvenile delinquency is a pathological problem and requires adequate treatment. It is more frequently curable than a large number of accepted medical diseases. Special courts and other reforms have helped somewhat but these savor too much of policemen and prison. The principal hope in dealing with disease lies in finding out all the causes and by so doing preventing its further occurrence. Careful research into the nature of crime and delinquency is necessary. Punishment for crime can only be excused when all other methods fail. Treatment should be preventative and curative. The best method of cure is that of psychological analysis which should be commenced as early as possible. The younger the age the simpler the treatment and the better the prognosis. There should also be preventative measures. Social evils, the problem of the orphan, the widow and the dependent young person should all receive attention. Segregation of the mentally deficient and morally unstable must be established and considerable time and study should be devoted to a careful study of the child mind.—*A. R. Abelson*. *Child Study*, XIII-2, Dec. 1920. pp. 27-29. (J. M.)

**The Individual as a Social Unit.** The foundation of social psychiatry is the psychiatry of the individual. Insanity is a mental disease—but not all of it. Psychiatry must be conceived to include the small defects of mind as well as the frank psychoses. Social movements such as Bolshevism can be studied by the psychiatrist through the mentality of their leaders. Unfortunately no James has yet arisen to depict, on the basis of extremest cases, the varieties of political experience. The three figures who have added most to the American idea of mental hygiene, Emerson, Charles Pierce and James, are responsible for the spiritual, practical and logical factors in the field. We must face the terrible analysis of the present hour, the rights of the individual as against society, and of society as against the individual, with their spirit, illumination and dynamism. Psychiatrists must be equipped to see through the terrors of anarchism, violence, destructiveness and paranoia wherever found. They "must carry their analytical powers, their ingrained optimism and their tried strength into not merely the narrow circles



of frank disease, but like Seguin of old, into education, like William James into the sphere of morals, like Isaac Ray into jurisprudence, and above all, into economics and industry."—*E. E. Southard*. *Ohio State Institution Journal*, III-3, Jan. 1921. pp. 51-53. (J. M.)

**Social Aspects of Feeble-Mindedness.** The measuring of intelligence was first developed by institutions caring for destitute and delinquent persons. It is now a regular custom in many places to measure mentality, because underneath a seemingly normal exterior there may lie a sub-normal mentality. Many in institutions who were formerly considered normal are found by scientific measurement to be sub-normal. It is only after all the many other social organizations have failed that a delinquent boy or girl is placed in an institution. When all else has been unsuccessful it is reasonable to expect that he or she is subnormal. Consequently, when mentality is measured the results are alarming in proportion of the feeble-minded. At the present time there has been no place provided for properly caring for the feeble-minded and they are treated the same as normal offenders.—*Charles H. Johnson*. *National Humane Review*, IX-3, Mar. 1921. pp. 54-60. (G. A. B.)

**The Care of the Mentally Defective.** The first step in an adequate program should be the beginning of a complete and continuing census of the uncared for mental defective throughout the Province. Then provisions should be made for governmental supervision of those who do not need immediate care. Clinics and special classes should be established and for those in need of segregation there should be adequate institutional provision. The aim of the institution should be two-fold—educational and custodial. Common school subjects should be taught as far as the children can go in them but the main emphasis should be upon industrial occupation and manual labor. The institution should be under the direction of a psychiatrist and should be made a comfortable and happy place where parents and guardians not able to provide custodial care themselves would voluntarily commit their children.—*Charles E. Doherty*. *Ohio State Institution Journal*, III-3, Jan. 1921. pp. 53-59. (J. M.)

**Vocational Tests for Mental Defectives.** There are needed tests for trying out the practical capacities of subnormal individuals. In an attempt to evaluate such tests the writer presented to a small group of defectives (1) Healy's tapping tests, (2) the three Healy picture form board tests, and (3) the Porteus maze tests. The tapping tests gave a correlation of .90 (P.E. .08) with rank order in handwork. The form board tests gave a correlation of .64 (P.E. .08) with handwork, of .60 (P.E. .08) with Porteus mental age and .45 (P.E. .11) with Stanford-Binet mental age. The Porteus tests gave a correlation of .76 (P.E. .06) with handwork and .79 (P.E. .05) with Stanford-Binet mental age. In another experiment a comparison of the average of Porteus and Stanford-Binet mental ages with industrial rating gave a correlation of .87 (P.E. .03). This seems to bear out Porteus' contention that the averaging of the Binet age and the Porteus age gives a better index of industrial ability than does either one alone.—*Elizabeth L. S. Ross*. *Studies in Mental Inefficiency*, II-1, Jan. 15, 1921. pp. 1-6. (J. M.)

**Colony Care for Isolation and Dependent Cases.** What many of our social misfits and mentally alienated subjects need is not lock-ups and custodial institutions and prisons, or even hospitals, except the latter for purposes of classification, but rather changes of environment. They need not the restraining influence of brick

walls and iron enclosures and guards, but rather the sustaining, diverting and comforting influence of a modest sanitary home, presided over by a house-mother with feeling and insight bred of experience. This is particularly illustrated by the practice of Rome State School which has 24 colonies, 14 for boys and 10 for girls, scattered over the state of New York. Each unit preferably consists of from 16 to 24 girls or boys under supervision of man and wife, or girls under a woman and an assistant. These units are practically self-supporting and administrative adjustments are easily made. Over one-third of the total population of 2100 for this School is cared for outside the central institution and results not only in marked saving for the state but reacts to the advantage of each individual.—*Charles Bernstein*. *Social Hygiene*, VII-1, Jan. 1921. pp. 55-59. (W.W.C.)

**Alcoholism and Tuberculosis.** Alcohol was formerly prescribed in the treatment of pulmonary and other forms of tuberculosis. Later research and discoveries have proven that alcohol prepares a better soil for the propagation of the tuberculosis germ. It lowers the state of the power making for immunity. The greatest problem, however, is the indirect influence of alcohol. It induces morbid states in personal hygiene, domestic conduct, industrial activity and community life which lead to the spread of tubercular infection rendering difficult all measures striving for its prevention and arrest. It is to the environmental influence and the unphysiological habits of life commonly associated with alcoholism rather than to alcohol itself, that the prejudicial effects are to be attributed. Apart from the degenerative effects upon the nervous system revealed by hereditary transmission from alcoholic parents there is handed a weakened physical condition of body which renders the offspring more liable to all kinds of disease, but especially to tuberculosis. It diminishes the main defense of the system by reducing the protective activities of the white corpuscles of the blood. It creates a carelessness in the individual of which disease takes advantage. "One degraded or ill-conditioned individual will demoralize a family. One disordered family lowers the conduct of the whole street; the low-caste life of a single street spreads its influence over the entire quarter; and the slum quarter subtly deteriorates the standards of health, morality and public spirit of the whole city."—*T. N. Kelynack*. *British Journal of Inebriety*, XVIII-3, Jan. 1921. pp. 85-96. (G. A. B.)

**The Menace of the Half-Man.** Who marries first and breeds fastest? Usually those least capable of providing their offspring with a heritage of brains or decent environment. A high English authority states that more than half England's children are produced by the lowest one-sixth of the population, and certainly we in America are doing no better. These future citizens appear in the public schools where they become a drag among the normal pupils. A special class is formed which does not take in nearly all of misfits. The "borderliners" often escape detection. The menace of the half-man is growing almost unchecked. All of the environmental work does next to nothing toward eliminating hereditary defect. We sit helplessly while any two people not in jail or in the lunatic asylum bring children into the world regardless of the consequences. There is a need for education in the laws of heredity, then the public as a whole will better understand the urgent need for governing the increase of the unfit. Quality of species in the well-ordered country should be the aim of society.—*Seth K. Humphrey*. *Journal of Heredity*, XI-5, May-June, 1920. pp. 228-232. (M. S. C.)



**Report of a Case of Juvenile Paresis.** Cases of presumable feeble-mindedness are often found in the children of syphilitic parents but in recent years we have learned that many of these cases are those of juvenile paresis. An example is shown in the case of C. S. whose father died at the age of 42 from general paresis. C. S. was the same as other children until he was 13, then he started having trouble in learning, was forgetful and unruly. After he reached the fifth grade was so troublesome that he was sent to Eldora as an incorrigible boy. There he seemed dull and stupid. After nine months he became irritable, excited, destructive and disoriented as to time and place. It was about two years after his admission to Eldora that he was committed to the Cherokee State Hospital. On a modified Binet, he scaled 12 years, was disoriented and annoying. Neurologically, pupils were dilated, knee jerks active, Achilles jerk exaggerated but equal. The diagnosis seemed to be one of imbecility, in spite of the eye symptoms, until a spinal puncture was made, with results of 27 cells to a c. m., increased albumen and a paretic curve by gold sol test. It was at this time that it was learned that the boy's father had been a paretic so the chain of evidence was complete. The course of his disease was typical of paresis. Had epileptiform convulsions with a loss of consciousness. After seven months he had an unusually severe attack which left him permanently paralyzed in his arms. He became bedridden, mute, emaciated and died a few months later.—*George Donahue.* Iowa Bulletin of State Institutions, XXI-1, Jan. 1919. pp. 27-30. (M. S. C.)

**A Practical Method of Selecting Policemen.** To cure police inefficiency two things are necessary. First the payment of adequate salaries and second a more practical method for the selection of policemen. For the latter purpose an adapted form of the army plan has proved successful in the hands of men having the necessary training and experience. As conducted by Dr. Jau Don Ball such an examination was given in two parts—a preliminary examination for which 17 men presented themselves and a qualifying or special examination to the 9 men chosen at the first. These 9 men were rated on a scale similar to the army rating scale except that the values were arrived at by actual examination and not by a man to man comparison as in the army. The qualifications rated were classed under the five heads of physical, nervous, mental, personality and general values. A personality chart was made for each man giving a graphic summary of his fitness for the work. Four men were recommended.—*August Vollmer.* Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology, XI-4, Feb. 1921 pp. 571-581. (J. M.)

**Out-Patient Clinics in Connection with a State Institution for the Feeble-minded.** At the Massachusetts School for the Feeble-minded one day a week is given to patients from outside. A psychiatrist makes the physical examination and takes the developmental history, a teacher measures scholastic attainments and capacity and general knowledge, a trained social worker investigates the economic and social history and looks for evidence of character defect or immoral or criminal record. A psychologist gives a thorough psychological examination. The findings of these several specialists are condensed into a synopsis which is handed to the chief of the clinic. Before reading it, however, he himself makes an independent examination of the patient. The synopsis sheet is then evaluated for each of the ten fields of inquiry. A plus sign is put opposite those fields which show no evidence of disease or defect, a minus sign opposite those which do show such evidence.

The case is then ready for diagnosis. A preponderance of minus signs may mean a case of uncomplicated mental defect. A majority of plus signs usually indicates something other than straight mental defect. The findings of the various fields have great influence both for diagnosis and prognosis. A mere statement of mental age or I. Q. is not a sufficient basis for intelligent prognosis or efficient treatment and education.—*Walter E. Fernald. Mental Hygiene, IV-4, Oct. 1920. pp. 848-856. (J. M.)*

**Segregation vs Hanging.** Emotional defect is coming to be recognized as of almost equal significance with intellectual defect as a causative factor in anti-social conduct. The varieties of emotional defect which principally concern the criminologist are those which come under the classification of dementia praecox. In its worst forms dementia praecox is undoubtedly insanity. In its milder forms it passes as eccentricity, obstinacy, or other asocial quality. The difficult cases are those on the borderline. Correctional treatment does not reform the victim of dementia praecox. Where emotional defect is combined with a low grade of intellect we have the stupid, brutish criminal. These persons can be diagnosed at an early stage and should be segregated before, rather than hanged after, they have committed their crimes. The diagnosis of dementia praecox must be made by a skilled alienist. The ordinary physician is not capable of detecting the defect nor is the Binet-Simon test adequate for revealing anomalies of the emotions except in the hands of a skilled psychiatrist when it yields dependable results. The only effective way to deal with this type of criminal is to remove him from society after his first minor offense. Punishment does not deter him nor other degenerates like him. To go on hanging such individuals is to leave the problem unsolved. Intelligent segregation will afford present safety and protect future generations.—*Herbert Harley. Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology. XI-4, Feb. 1921, pp. 512-527. (J. M.)*

**The Otis Group Intelligence Scale Applied to the Elementary School Graduating Class of Oakland, California.** The results of Otis Group Intelligence tests proved of greatest value for group classifications and comparisons while giving indications of need for further study of individual cases. The results are not as reliable in the measurement of individuals as in the measurement of classes. Low scores may help confirm a judgment as to the inferior capacity. A high score associated with poor school work would indicate factors to be investigated, as physical, nervous, home or other social handicaps tending to lower efficiency. Scores often indicate eligibility for special promotions and serve as aids to educational and vocational counseling. The whole question of the differentiation of the curriculum in terms of the capacity and needs of pupils is one in which test results can lend valuable aid. *V. E. Dickson and John K. Norton. Journal of Educational Research, III-2, Feb. 1921. pp. 106-115. (K. M. C.)*

**Health Education in the Junior High School.** The curriculum of the Junior High School should include a comprehensive program of health; two 90-minute periods per week of physical education is suggested as a minimum. The school must play its part in educating for preventable diseases. Writers on moral education and writers on physical education both point to physical education and especially to games and athletics as an important means of training in morals and will, and so, for citizenship. Demands for health education are best met where habits of healthful activity are inculcated through the various school activities. The program should include instruction in personal, community and social hygiene.



Programs must be suited to boys and girls of early adolescent stages, taking advantage of such elements as the gang spirit, competition, rivalries, etc. Mental hygiene is insistent that mental life be protected through a healthful environment considering the hygiene of each of the several subjects.—*Aubrey A. Douglass*. Educational Administration and Supervision, VII-1, Jan. 1921. pp. 12-21. (K. M. C.)

**Effect of Caffein and Acetanilid on Simple Reaction Time.** Twenty university students were tested for reaction time in connection with the administration of five grain capsules of caffein, acetanilid, or a control substance. Both drugs were found to retard reaction time, the effect being greater in the case of caffein. An effect of unsteadiness was also produced by both drugs. Observations of pulse and respiration gave no special indications.—*Walter Schilling*. Psychological Review, XXVII-1, Jan. 1921. pp. 72-79. (J. H. W.)

**Group Tests of Intelligence: An Annotated List.** The great demand for group tests has resulted in a bewildering array. The writer here lists merely those of which he knows, with brief comment on the more important. Thirty group scales are listed.—*J. Carleton Bell*. Journal of Educational Psychology, XII-2, Feb. 1921. pp. 103-108. (J. M.)

## STATE AND INSTITUTION REPORTS

**California. State Board of Control. Fourth Biennial Report of the Children's Department.** 1920. Amy D. Steinhart, chief children's agent. Sacramento, Cal. pp. 57.

This report details the current expenditures of funds for dependent children in California. It includes a special report of Dr. Kate Gordon entitled "The Influence of Heredity on Mental Ability." Individual tests of 850 children, mostly in orphanages, have been checked with reference to the relative intelligence of sibs. The average correlation for several groups is + 49.5, which is strongly suggestive of the force of inheritance. (J. H. W.)

**California. Superintendent of Public Instruction. Twenty-ninth Biennial Report.** 1920. Will C. Wood, superintendent. Sacramento, Cal. pp. 198.

In this report Superintendent Wood outlines his progressive views relative to education in California. With reference to the education of delinquents and defective children, he points out that these are properly problems within the scope of the educational system. Closer relationship is urged between the state schools and public schools, including the establishment of a state 24-hour school for preventive work. Research work, including psychological testing, is encouraged. The need for more and better trained teachers for special educational work is foreseen. The report accords with the high standards maintained by the present state department of education. (J. H. W.)

**California. Commissioner of Elementary Schools. Biennial Report.** 1920. Margaret S. McNaught, commissioner. Sacramento, Cal. pp. 20.

Dr. McNaught urges increased support for elementary schools, revisions in the school code, the consolidation of small schools, and other improvements. She characterizes the work in psychological and educational tests as one of the greatest indications of progress. Particular reference is made to the psychological work of Dr. L. M. Terman at Stanford University, Dr. A. H. Sutherland in Los Angeles, Dr. Virgil E. Dickson in Oakland and Berkeley, Dr. Leroy J. Stockton at the San

Jose State Normal, Dr. Grace M. Fernald at the Southern Branch of the University of California, and the work of the California Bureau of Juvenile Research. Referring to the development of juvenile delinquency in the public schools, Dr. McNaught says: "The public school system should diagnose these cases and provide right education for them instead of sending them to a state school rather late in life to be, if possible, reformed." (J. H. W.)

**Maryland.** *State Board of Labor and Statistics.* Twenty-eighth Annual Report, 1919. Charles J. Fox, chairman of commissioners. Baltimore, Md. pp. 355.

Of special interest in this report is an article by Dr. Francis L. Dunham entitled "A Study of Unusual Children." By the application of scientific methods of classification and guidance, a group of children who were vocational and educational misfits were directed in such a manner that they functioned successfully in both respects. (J. H. W.)

**Michigan.** *State Industrial Home for Girls.* Twentieth Biennial Report, 1918. Mrs. Mary C. Johnson, superintendent. Adrian, Michigan. pp. 31.

This institution had an average of 403 inmates during the biennium. Among the administrative problems mentioned were the care of the 50 or more mentally deficient girls and the required acceptance of girls with venereal diseases. Of 162 girls received during the fiscal year 1917-18, 31 were afflicted with venereal disease. (W. W. C.)

**Missouri.** *St. Louis Board of Children's Guardians.* Annual Report, 1920. C. G. Rathmann, chairman. St. Louis, Mo. pp. 31.

Detailed description of the administrative plan and routine in operation at the recently established Bellefontaine Farms, the institution for St. Louis' delinquent boys, is presented in this report. The cottage plan has been adopted and segregation is based on age, inclination and needs, and degree of delinquency. The dependent and neglected children are no longer sent to public or private institutions, but are cared for in free or boarding homes under supervision of the placing out department. A study of seventy dependent families gave cause of death of breadwinner as tuberculosis in over 50 per cent of the cases. In the majority of cases the men were unskilled laborers and unable to command a living wage. (W. W. C.)

**Missouri.** *State Board of Charities and Corrections.* *The Training and Care of Feeble-Minded Persons in Missouri.* Jefferson City. 1921. pp. 26.

At the request of Governor Frederick D. Gardner this survey was undertaken by the National Committee on Mental Hygiene, under the direction of Dr. Thomas H. Haines. It is estimated that there are at least 3600 feeble-minded children in the public schools of Missouri, and that the feeble-minded population of the state may reach 13,000. There is but one institution for the care of these persons, housing 590 patients. Special surveys of almshouses, children's homes, schools for delinquents and schools for the blind and deaf revealed large proportions of feeble-minded in these institutions. It is recommended that the present Missouri Colony be enlarged to a capacity of at least 2000 patients, that better segregation be provided for the different types of defectives and that the administration of institutions and special supervision for the feeble-minded be vested in a single state board. This is a constructive survey, and the findings may well be taken into consideration in the development of future legislation. (J. H. W.)



**New York.** *Annual Statistical Review of the Insane in the State Hospitals and Private Licensed Institutions.* 1920. Horatio M. Pollock, statistician. Albany, N. Y. pp. 266-438.

Statistical data concerning causes of admission, sexual differences, social status, causes of death, and other related factors are given in detail in this report. Among the principal causes of mental disease for first admissions, other than heredity, are the following:

Abnormal make-up.....	28.6 per cent
Syphilis.....	14.2 per cent
Arteriosclerosis.....	12.3 per cent
Senility.....	10.8 per cent
Alcohol.....	6.4 per cent
Physical illness.....	4.8 per cent
Epilepsy.....	2.7 per cent
Death in family.....	2.1 per cent
Pregnancy, childbirth and lactation.....	1.4 per cent
Loss of employment and financial loss.....	1.0 per cent

The statistical tables are carefully prepared and are briefly analyzed and summarized. (W. W. C.)

**New York.** *House of Refuge.* Ninety-fifth Annual Report. 1919. Edward C. Barber, superintendent. Randall's Island, New York. pp. 109 and statistical tables.

An excellent report clearly indicating the organization of the oldest reformatory in the United States. Details concerning the credit system, instruction in school and trade, discipline, and parole methods are given. It is considered that 70.5 per cent of boys still under parole supervision are doing well. Of 4410 boys who have been under parole supervision since January 1, 1905, the following response obtains:

Doing well.....	2504 or 56.78 per cent
Not doing well.....	1079 or 24.47 per cent
Unknown.....	827 or 18.75 per cent

Statistical data concerning physical and mental tests for consecutive entrants are appended to the report but unfortunately have not been summarized. (W. W. C.)

**New York.** *State Hospital Commission.* Thirty-first Annual Report, 1919. Everett S. Ellwood, secretary. Albany, N. Y. pp. 442.

There were 39,945 patients under treatment in New York state hospitals for insane at end of the fiscal year 1919. Indicating the results of treatment, the recovery rate based on first admissions was 23.0 per cent; on all admission, 18.0 per cent; and on total under treatment, 3.4 per cent. The commission is active in promoting research into the causes of mental disorders and a number of valuable studies have been published in the State Hospital Quarterly and elsewhere. The report contains interesting summaries and well prepared statistical data relating to insane in institutions and on parole. The "Annual Statistical Review of the Insane in the State Hospitals and Private Licensed Institutions," by Dr. Pollock, is included in this report. (W. W. C.)

**New York.** *State Reformatories.* Elmira, 44th Annual Report. Napanoch, 19th Annual Report. 1919. Frank L. Christian, superintendent. Elmira, New York. pp. 115.

The average daily population of Elmira is 707, and of Napanoch, 186. The average age of inmates is 21 years and the cause of commitment, felony. Research into the nature of the reformatory population has been carried on through psychiatric examination and by questionnaire method for the past few years. A report by Dr. Christian "Concerning Acquirement of More Complete Information about Prisoners and their Environments" and Dr. Harding's study of one thousand reformatory prisoners have been reprinted, and have been reviewed in this Journal recently. A biographical compendium is a valuable feature of this report and gives cumulative data concerning the character of the prisoners and their parents. Ninety-eight of a total of 547 placed on parole from Elmira during the year became delinquent. This represents 18 per cent. At Napanoch, 178 were paroled during the year and 52 or 29 per cent were declared delinquent. These reformatories are among the foremost in the country in the study and individuation of their wards.

(W. W. C.)

**Washington.** *Report of the Public School Administrative Commission.* 1921. Frank L. Lamborn, public printer. Olympia, Wash. pp. 117.

This report is designed to accompany a bill pending in the Washington legislature regarding educational reorganization. The whole question of the functioning of the state in educational matters is admirably covered. Chapter VII, dealing with "Reformatory and Special Institutions," urges the administrative consolidation of these schools under the state board of education and the carrying out of a rational constructive program. It is proposed to bring this about through the establishment of a central state bureau for diagnosis, to be under the direction of a clinical psychologist. Through this bureau the determination of institution placing should be made. The report is edited by Professor Cubberley of Stanford University. (J. H. W.)

**Wisconsin.** *Industrial School for Girls.* Fourteenth Biennial Report. 1918. Mary J. Berry, superintendent. Milwaukee, Wis. pp. 19.

This school receives dependent and delinquent girls under 16 years of age by civil commitment or direct from parents or guardians. The average detention thus far has been about three years. Individual differences are mentioned but apparently the administrative officers of the School do not have the advantage of psychological tests or research data. The average population is 232 girls with an average of 80 on parole during the year. (W. W. C.)

**Wyoming.** *State Board of Charities and Reform.* Biennial Report, 1920. Cornelia B. Mills, secretary. Cheyenne, Wyo. pp. 103.

Among the noteworthy improvements indicated in the administration of institutions is the organization of a department of research and a training school for teachers for special classes at the State School for Defectives under the superintendency of Dr. C. T. Jones. Brief reports for the various institutions under control of the Board of Charities and Reform are included in this report. It is noted that Wyoming has not yet provided institutions for all of its wards. At present Colorado institutions are used for female prisoners and delinquent girls, while the deaf and blind are sent to the neighboring states of Nebraska, Colorado, and Utah. It is recommended in this report that the state purchase a large farm tract, and erect thereon several new institutions. (W. W. C.)



# The Journal of Delinquency

Volume VI

JULY, 1921

Number 4

## A STUDY OF CHILDREN IN INSTITUTIONS IN LOS ANGELES

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The following study was made by the Juvenile Protective Association of Los Angeles County, during February, March, and April, 1921. It does not claim to be a comprehensive, nor even an extensive survey since it was not possible to employ trained investigators for the work, nor to cover all the institutions boarding children. As far as it goes, however, it is significant of the needs that are being met by such institutions, and should be of service in determining what further facilities are needed in this direction.

Three institutions are included in the study, and the 223 children classified in the following tables are those who entered these institutions between January 1, 1920 and March 1, 1921, with the exception of Table VI, which refers to the 97 children dismissed during the same period of time.

The work of gathering data was done by volunteers, who filled out a carefully prepared questionnaire for each child from the admission cards on file in the institutions, and from such supplementary information as could be gathered from those in charge.

In this questionnaire we endeavored to learn something of the history and condition of the child and his parents, and the reason for his being in the institution. This was the most important question of all,—what circumstances took the child out of his natural environment, interrupting the normal contact between him and his parents, if the parents were living, and made him partly dependent upon charity, and a member of an artificial group to which he bore no vital relation.

We had been led to especial interest in this question by a study of Florence L. Lattimore's fine report, *Pittsburgh as a Foster Mother* originally published as a part of the Pittsburgh Survey made by the Russell Sage Foundation. In a study of 275 families having children in institutions, the following facts were brought out:—

In one-third of the cases, both parents were living. Sixty per cent of the fathers and eighty-three per cent of the mothers were not over forty years old when their children were placed in institutions.

More than half the children were between the ages of five and ten,—“a period when they particularly needed home influences and individual care.”

In more than half the cases the parents were American born.

How far are these conditions approximated in Los Angeles, we wondered. Are the institutions serving the children who have most need of their care? Are there children in institutions for whom, perhaps, a normal home life would be possible? What is the significance of the long waiting list of which each institution tells us?—in one case, a list that numbered over four times the capacity of the institution? Does it mean that we need more such homes, or that there should be a re-adjustment of the children within them and those on the waiting list, or that, back of all these facts, lies some growing tendency to seek institutional life for children, for reasons that we have not discovered? An examination of the following tables will show that these questions are as important for Los Angeles as for Pittsburgh.

TABLE I. AGE AND SEX OF CHILDREN.

	Boys		Girls		Total	
	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
<i>5 years and under</i> ....	46	40.0	32	29.6	78	35.0
<i>6 to 10 years</i> .....	57	49.6	42	38.9	99	44.4
<i>Over 10 years</i> .....	12	10.4	34	31.5	46	20.6
Total	115	100.0	108	100.0	223	100.0

TABLE II. NATIVITY OF PARENTS.<sup>1</sup>

	Fathers		Mothers		Total	
	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
<i>American born</i> .....	149	74.9	160	76.6	309	75.7
<i>Foreign born</i> .....	50	25.1	49	23.4	99	24.3
<i>Total classified</i> .....	99	100.0	209	100.0	408	100.0
<i>No data</i> .....	24	....	14			
Total	223		223			

1. The census of 1910 gives the foreign born population of Los Angeles as 19 per cent. The Americanization Committee of the District Federation of Clubs estimates the foreign born of Los Angeles as 193,682, according to a study of them by groups recently made. With a total population of 611,636 (1921), this would give a foreign born population of 31.6 per cent. It would appear, therefore, that the American born parents are making the greater use of the institutions.



TABLE III. AGES OF LIVING PARENTS WHEN CHILD BECAME DEPENDENT.<sup>2</sup>

	Fathers		Mothers		Total	
	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
20-30 years.....	18	15.9	55	41.7	73	29.8
30-40 years.....	48	42.5	64	48.5	112	45.7
40-50 years.....	36	31.9	12	9.1	48	19.6
Over 50 years.....	11	9.7	1	0.7	12	4.9
Total	113	100.0	132	100.0	245	100.0

TABLE IV. AGE OF CHILD AND MARITAL CONDITION OF PARENT.

	5 years and under	6-10 years	Over 10 years	Total	
	No.			No.	Per cent
Mother living.....	16	23	12	51	23.1
Father living.....	10	19	6	35	15.8
Married couple.....	4	5	--	9	4.1
Separated.....	32	25	14	71	32.1
Divorced.....	14	24	11	49	22.1
Re-married.....	--	1	2	3	1.4
Both parents dead.....	--	1	2	3	1.4
Total classified.....	76	98	47	221	100.0
No data.....	1	1	--	2	
Total				223	

TABLE V. REASONS FOR ADMISSION OF CHILDREN.

	Number	Per cent
Parents separated.....	55	24.9
Parents divorced.....	47	21.3
Widowed mother.....	46	20.8
Widowed father.....	30	13.6
Unfit home.....	10	4.5
Insufficient income.....	5	2.3
Ill-health of parent.....	4	1.8
Other reasons <sup>3</sup> .....	24	10.8
Total classified.....	221	100.0
No data.....	2	
Total.....	223	

TABLE VI. REASONS FOR DISMISSAL OF CHILDREN.

	Number	Per cent
Home re-established:		
Parent to care for.....	50	54.3
Parent re-married.....	5	5.4
Parents re-united.....	6	6.5
Other relatives to care for.....	14	15.2
To board elsewhere.....	6	6.5
Placed for adoption.....	4	4.4
Conduct difficulties.....	3	3.3
Other reasons.....	4	4.4
Total classified.....	92	100.0
No data.....	5	
Total.....	97	

2. One institution did not record the ages of parents.

3. "Other reasons" include:—Step-father not good to child; orphan; parents going to separate; father in penitentiary; child a runaway; mental trouble of mother; etc.

The average cost of keeping a child in one of these institutions is \$32.65. The average amount paid for a child per month was \$16.85.

Summarizing briefly the data in the above tables, we see that in the case of these Los Angeles children:—

Three were full orphans.

Over half had both parents living.

Nearly half were in institutions because parents were separated or divorced.

Less than one-fourth were over ten years of age.

Three-fourths of the parents living were not more than forty years of age.

Three-fourths of the parents were American born.

48.4 per cent of the cost of keeping the children was met by charity.

Recently a wealthy and benevolent old resident of Los Angeles was heard to say "I have been hoping for years to establish a big home for poor homeless little children who have no one to care for them. I want to make it big enough to hold about a thousand." Doubtless there are many who believe that orphans' homes are inhabited largely by orphans, and that there can never be too many such homes. But with the above statistics before our eyes, must we not seek the solution of a much deeper problem than the housing of orphan children?

In *Child Welfare Work in California* (1915), Slingerland says: "California provides for 9,000 children in institutions, 381 for each 100,000, ranking second in the Union in this respect." A former secretary of the State Board of Charities, W. Almont Gates, said "In comparison with other states, the number of dependent children in California is exceedingly great." He blames the ease with which our system permits parents to escape the duty of support. "Enforcement of liability of the living parent (for half-orphans) would undoubtedly reduce the amount paid in State Aid nearly one-half." And Herbert Lewis wrote "Thousands of weak and unworthy parents seek to place their children in the state-aided asylums, when, with proper self-sacrifice and industry, they could perform their own parental duties. The falsehood and subterfuge used to get children admitted to institutions are almost beyond belief."

Perhaps it is asked "But is not the child better off in a good institution than in a poor home, with parents who could not live together peaceably and hold the family intact?" It might seem at first that both the child and his parents would be benefited by the arrangement. But this view will not survive a little serious consideration. However excellent the institution may be, —and too much can hardly



be said for the excellence of those included in this study,—it is a poor substitute for a real home, wherever the moral atmosphere of the latter is not actually vicious. It is in his own home that the child feels himself an essential part of his environment; his participation in the family fortunes, however poor they may be, his pride in the family triumphs and acquisitions help to lay the foundation for success in business and pride in his work when he is grown. The purchase of a second-hand Ford means more to the child in the home than the donation of a new building to the one in the institution. Children need the feeling of permanence in their relationships, and of possession in environment. The institution, with its constantly changing population and its equipment in which they can never feel ownership, fails to satisfy either of these needs. "We are just like one big family," is often said by those in charge of the institutions, and if the devotion and good will of these fine women could bring to realization such a condition, the statement would surely be true. But family life can not be experienced by heterogeneous groups of boys and girls, however well housed and well cared for by matrons a few months at a time. Moreover, are we prepared to commit ourselves to a policy of ideal institutional care for all the children who can be accommodated? Have we deliberately considered where this will lead us, and contemplated all the economic and social results of such a policy?

But what if the children must needs be homeless, though with both parents living, since those parents will not continue together—is not the institution absolutely necessary for these? We do not pretend to offer a solution for the great questions of separation and divorce. But is it certain that the break-up of the home would occur so readily if it were less easy to find shelter for the children? It is noteworthy that in six different cases, the reason for admission of a child into one of the institutions surveyed was *parents going to separate*. Is the institution, unwittingly, making it easy to deprive a child of his own home by providing an institutional one for him? "Every time an institution allows a family to break up or sink without seeing that an intelligent effort is made to save it (if it were not already too late)," says Miss Lattimore, in *Pittsburgh as a Foster Mother*, ". . . it strengthens the forces that created the application."

The conclusion is obvious. Child caring work in institutions cannot function properly except in connection with other lines of social work. There has been, perhaps, a tendency for the institutions to consider their problems as detached from those of other organizations—to feel

that if they provided a well-regulated, happy life for the children brought to them, they were under no further obligation to them, nor to society. "Except in rarest instances,"—to quote again from the Pittsburgh Survey,—“the managers themselves confined their attention to that section of the child's life which was cut off at one end by admission and at the other end by discharge.” How many children are in institutions whose own homes might have been saved to them by the efforts of an active and intelligent social worker?

The following table shows the aggregate amounts of time spent in the institutions by children from broken homes, who entered before 1920 and are still there:

	Children	Months
Parents deserted.....	13	303
Parents separated.....	14	709
Parents divorced.....	12	351
Total.....	39	1363

A total of 113 years of institutional life! Let us estimate the money cost of this to the public. Allowing \$25.00 per month as a fair average for the institutional cost of a child for the past ten years, the 48.4 percent of the total met by charity would be over sixteen thousand dollars. Dare we say that in all these cases the long residence in the institution,—in some cases from five to eight years—was necessary for the best interests of the child?—that the conditions which sent him there were irremediable?—that a part of this money, wisely spent in well directed work with the home, would not have made possible for some of these thirty-nine children a normal life with their relatives? Were the proper legal steps taken to secure support for the deserted mothers? Were the separated parents encouraged to adjust their difficulties for the sake of the children? Were the divorced parents led to see that the children had in no way deserved to forfeit home life because of their elders' mistakes? When the child was once admitted, were persistent efforts made, throughout his residence, to restore to him his birthright, or was the whole question of home life for him considered closed? In her report of the Children's Department, State Board of Control, Miss Amy Steinhart says, "An analysis of social and financial records proves conclusively that many so-called orphanages are concerning themselves to a large degree with the care of children of the broken home, and not with the orphan. A detailed study of one institution brought to light the fact that 65 per cent of the inhabitants should not have received its benefits, and might without difficulty have been returned to relatives or parents."



The succeeding sentences from this same report show that already a glimpse has been caught of the truer social service with regard to these children. "The accessibility of orphanages," Miss Steinhart goes on, "and their open handed policy of accepting charges without a diagnosis of actual need, have been factors in the placing of children which if not checked might have made California's problem a serious one. But institutional directors are learning that they may be case workers and still not lose their interest in and sympathy for children. Two orphanages after making a study of their wards, realizing that they were no longer needed in the field of dependency, decided to accept no more state aid and to convert them selves into boarding schools."

Cleveland has made a very thorough study of her children in institutions, and has found that other arrangements were practicable for many of them. In one orphan's home, careful social investigation reduced the number of inmates from over sixty to nineteen. A children's bureau has been organized, to which applicants for admission to the institutional homes may be referred, and which will report to the admission committees the full social facts of the cases, and supervise families of children that have been admitted, in order that they may be returned to their homes as soon as practicable. The following "Principles of Child Care," from their "Suggested Program of Child Welfare," are so obvious as to hardly require stating,—yet how many institutions are guiltless of violating them?—

1. The family is the primary unit of society and of the state, and its solidarity should be protected.
2. The home should be broken only as a last resort after other measures fail and for causes other than economic.
3. After disruption of any or all parts of a family, every effort should be made to re-establish the home as soon as possible.

When we turn from the children of the broken home to those of widowed mothers or fathers, we see the legitimate work of the institution, and this at its best if the time of the child's residence is short and the parent is enabled to resume his care or to place him happily with relatives or friends. The aid of the institution is invaluable in temporarily relieving working mothers and fathers of half-orphans, leaving them free to work out their economic problems and plan for the child's permanent home without pressing haste. All the more urgent, therefore, is it that the services of the institutions should be reserved for those to whom it offers the only satisfactory solution of a serious problem.

It remains to speak of the keeping of data on the children in in-

stitutions. We found wide variance in the fullness and care with which the admission cards were filled out. It is far too generally the custom to rest satisfied if the superintendent is familiar with the facts of the case, and to omit writing them out. This means, of course, that if the superintendent dies, leaves her position, or goes on vacation, the vital facts about the child go with her,—including, usually, the very important question of why he is in the institution. Moreover, in very few instances was there any record of the child after he left the institution, and we found that such knowledge was usually vague and indefinite, acquired entirely by chance, and seldom entered in writing. The work of a children's bureau, such as Cleveland has established, would be of the utmost value in follow-up work.

Other facts which should appear on the admission cards, as of importance in future social studies, would be:—the ages of the parents (these are now recorded by some institutions); the number of children in the family and their institutional record; the date of naturalization of foreign born parents; the date of arrival of the family in California; and the income of parents. All these facts will acquire significance as the problem of the institutional child is given closer attention and becomes the subject of more constructive planning.

In fact, the institution should adopt some of the principles and methods of a first-class Children's Hospital. Such a hospital admits a child only after a careful diagnosis of his case, and only when there is reasonable presumption that its services are what are most needed. In studying his complaint the physicians weigh the significant details of his family history and his own. The conditions under which he has lived, the crises of health which he has already experienced, his powers of resistance on the one hand and his weaknesses on the other must be taken into account. But always is the fact recognized that abnormal conditions have brought him there, and never is the great object his care lost sight of,—*to get him out of the hospital*, in good condition as soon as possible. And once in his home again, his care is often superintended by visiting nurses, who instruct those in charge of him that they may prevent a return of his trouble.

When standards such as these are applied to children's institutions, we may see fewer so-called orphanages and they may be less prompt to receive new applicants than at present. But there will be more children in the homes they need, and which just as truly need them and those homes may weather some of the storms which would otherwise wreck them, bringing to maturity boys and girls who are the better prepared for a normal life because they have been brought up in a normal environment.



## SUCCESS RECORDS OF PRISONERS AND DELINQUENTS

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The social value and efficiency of penal and industrial institutions must ultimately be measured by the record made by those who have been returned to society after a period of care and training. A study of the quality of success of delinquents and the related factors based on accurate and complete data is one of the present needs of social science.

This article presents some of the statements and findings which have recently appeared in periodical literature and institution reports relating to success record. The data reported are limited to studies and reports with which the writer is familiar, including, however, published reports from many of the larger correctional institutions on file in the library of the California Bureau of Juvenile Research.

Many reports from institutions contain generalized statements as to the success of their inmates, such as "nearly all are succeeding," "the response is all that could be expected," or "considerable success." Few studies have defined the terms used in classifying or met the requirements of a scientific study.

The success record percentages are not intercomparable for the various institutions, nor entirely accurate as an index of the success record for the given institution for several reasons, e. g.,

1. Nearly all classifications have been subjective and depend largely upon the attitude and opinion of an individual; hence, even if the same terminology were used the standards were not necessarily uniform.
2. All cases leaving the institution are not always included. Most frequently the report includes only those placed on parole; other cases may have been discharged directly or by court order or transferred to other institutions.
3. The time limits covered by the reports are greatly varied. Few studies follow up the record after release from parole obligations.

The data here presented are classified under the following general headings: Penitentiaries and reformatories; Industrial schools for boys; Industrial schools for girls; Relation of intelligence to success; and Conclusions.

## PENITENTIARIES AND REFORMATORIES

**Connecticut.** The biennial report<sup>1</sup> of *Connecticut State Prison* contains the statement "Eighty-five per cent of the paroled inmates make good."

There were paroled from the *Connecticut Reformatory*<sup>2</sup> during the fiscal year 1916-1917 a total of 163 cases. Eighty-four, or 51.5 per cent, of these cases are either doing well on parole, received their discharge, or known to be in the United States service. Thirty-eight have been returned for violation of parole and 41 are violators at large,—a total of 79, or 48.5 per cent, failures.

For the fiscal year 1917-1918 a total of 166 cases were paroled. One hundred and ten, or 66.2 per cent, are either doing well on parole, received their discharge, or known to be in the United States service. Twenty-three have been returned for violation and 23 are parole violators at large,—a total of 46, or 33.8 per cent, failures.

**Illinois.** A report of the superintendent of the Division of Pardons and Paroles<sup>3</sup> includes data relative to success on parole for the two state penitentiaries, and for the state reformatory.

Prior to September 30, 1918, a total of 7042 cases were paroled from the *Southern Illinois Penitentiary* at Chester. Of this number 9.06 per cent were returned for violation of parole agreement, and 14.24 per cent are defaulters at large. This gives a total of 23.30 per cent failures. During the biennium 1918-1920, a total of 479 were paroled of which 2.92 per cent were returned for violation of parole agreement and 10.67 per cent are defaulters at large,—a total of 13.59 per cent for the biennium.

Prior to September 30, 1918, a total of 8933 cases were paroled from the *Illinois State Penitentiary* at Joliet. Of this number 15.69 per cent were returned for violation and 14.86 per cent are defaulters at large. This gives a total of 30.55 per cent failures. During the biennium 1918-1920 a total of 618 were paroled of which 7.45 per cent were returned for violation and 11.65 per cent are defaulters at large,—a total of 19.10 per cent for the biennium.

Prior to September 30, 1918, a total of 9521 cases were paroled from the *Illinois State Reformatory* at Pontiac. Of this number 12.85 per cent were returned for violation of the parole agreement and

1. Connecticut State Prison, Wethersford, Conn. *Biennial Report*, 1920. p. 8.

2. Connecticut Reformatory, Cheshire, Conn. *Biennial Report*, 1918. p. 37.

3. Colvin, Will. *The Parole Law—Its Accomplishments, Statistical Data, etc.* Dep. of Pub. Welfare, Springfield, Ill. 1920. pp. 9-12.



10.87 per cent are defaulters at large. This gives a total of 23.72 per cent failures. During the biennium 1918-1920, a total of 723 were paroled of which 7.73 per cent were returned for violation and 6.50 per cent are defaulters at large,—a total of 14.23 per cent for the biennium.

**Indiana.** The parole department of *Indiana State Prison*<sup>4</sup> reports 26.9 per cent of parole violations.

**New York.** During the year 1919, 98 of a total of 547 placed on parole from the *New York State Reformatory*<sup>5</sup> at Elmira became delinquent. This represents 18 per cent. During the same year, 178 men were paroled from the *Eastern New York Reformatory* at Napanoch and 52, or 29.2 per cent, failed to carry out the conditions of their parole and were therefore declared delinquent.

#### INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS FOR BOYS

**California.** A study of the success record of boys paroled from *Preston School of Industry*<sup>6</sup> at Waterman was made in 1918. During one year 203 boys received their discharge by becoming of age or by being recommitted to another institution, after having spent some time under the observation of the parole officer. Omitting 10 for whom data were incomplete, 193 cases included consecutive discharges for the year, and considered "on the basis of success or failure" gave the following groupings:

Military service.....	15 per cent
Success .. .. .	39 per cent
Borderline success.....	10 per cent
Failure—new crimes.....	19 per cent
Failure—industrial.....	13 per cent
Failure—technical.....	4 per cent
Total number of failures, all causes <sup>7</sup> .....	36 per cent

Several studies of success record of delinquents have been made of boys from *Whittier State School*. The most important of these is that published in the biennial report<sup>8</sup> for 1916-1918. In this study all boys who were placed on parole and furlough, or who were discharged from the School during the biennium were classified with reference to

4. Indiana State Prison, Michigan City, Ind. *Annual Report*, 1919. p. 51.

5. New York State Reformatories. *Elmira, 44th Report; Napanoch, 19th Report*. 1919. pp. 25, 104.

6. Preston School of Industry, Waterman, Cal. *Biennial Rep't.*, 1918. pp. 102-4.

7. The report states that "the percentages are most accurate for the different types of failures."

8. Clark, Willis W. *Follow-up Record of Whittier State School Boys*. Whittier State School, Whittier, Cal. *Biennial Report*, 1918. pp. 96-114.

success record. In determining the record of success the social classification used by Galen A. Merrill<sup>9</sup>, Superintendent of the Minnesota State Public School for Dependent Children, was adopted. Dr. Merrill's definitions of terms used were as follows:

1. *Doing well*. "Those who have developed into men....of good character and are fulfilling the requirements of good citizenship, and the minor wards who are developing normally, meeting the requirements of good homes and giving promise of success."

2. *Doing fairly well*. "Those who have been less successful or who are not developing satisfactorily but who have become or give promise of becoming at least self-supporting, respectable citizens."

3. *Doing poorly*. "Those who are regarded in the community where they live as undesirable citizens or who do not give promise of becoming useful."

The method adopted gave a cross-section, including all cases under the care and supervision of the School during a two-year period. Of a total of 301 boys, data sufficient to classify the response of 258 were obtained, indicating the response on July 1, 1918. Two years later sufficient data were obtained to classify 252 of the same 301 boys, representing a cross-section for July 1, 1920. These data are given in Table I. Those transferred to other state custodial schools and institutions for feeble-minded were included in the "doing poorly" group. Those convicted of crime after parole have been considered as "doing poorly" unless there were some unusual circumstances relating to their subsequent record which should indicate that they be placed in the "doing fairly well" group.

TABLE I. SUCCESS RECORD OF 301 WHITTIER STATE SCHOOL BOYS AT TWO-YEAR INTERVAL.

	July 1, 1918		July 1, 1920	
	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
Doing well .....	110	42.7	111	44.0
Doing fairly well.....	78	30.2	69	24.6
Doing poorly.....	70	27.1	79	31.4
Total classified.....	258	100.0	252	100.0
No data <sup>10</sup> .....	43		49	
Total .....	301		301	

9. Merrill, Galen A. *Minnesota State Public School for Dependent Children. Survey of Twenty-eight Years' Work*. Owatonna, Minn. 1915. Dr. Merrill found the following success record for the first 4000 children received since the opening of the institution in 1886: 2407 boys—doing well 67 per cent, doing fairly well 22 per cent, doing poorly 11 per cent; 1593 girls—doing well 70 per cent, doing fairly well 18 per cent, doing poorly 12 per cent.

10. Includes mostly those discharged by court order present whereabouts unknown, and some dead, in other states, or in other countries.



It may be considered that 72.9 per cent were succeeding in 1918 and 68.6 per cent were continuing to make a satisfactory record in 1920.

The classification for July 1, 1920 afforded a comparison of the success record of boys who have been discharged and those remaining on parole. The need of a thorough study of this kind has been indicated by Dr. Gault<sup>11</sup>. The data presented in Table II give the success records of the 252 boys on July 1, 1920, indicating the percentages for those who had been discharged or were continued on parole. The group continued on parole shows a slightly higher average of success but not to a marked extent. It may be considered that of the discharged group 67.9 per cent are succeeding, while of the on parole group 70.0 per cent are succeeding. These figures, of course, are not necessarily an index of the value of parole as it might be said that most of the discharged cases had been on parole and were continuing to benefit by the supervision which had been given.

TABLE II. SUCCESS RECORD OF BOYS DISCHARGED AND CONTINUED ON PAROLE.

	Discharged		On parole	
	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
Doing well.....	69	42.6	42	46.7
Doing fairly well.....	41	25.3	21	23.3
Doing poorly.....	52	32.1	27	30.0
Total.....	162	100.0	90	100.0

A positive relationship has been found between the quality of response of the boys in 1918 and that which they continued to make in 1920, indicating that a boy is likely to continue the record made during the first months away from the school. This general tendency is demonstrated by a coefficient of correlation of +.38 (P. E. .061) between success record in 1918 and 1920.

**Illinois.** A follow-up study<sup>12</sup> of the 242 boys released from *St. Charles School for Boys* at St. Charles between January 1, 1915 and July 1, 1916 and returned to Chicago was made by investigators of the Chicago Department of Public Welfare. No information was obtained concerning 39 cases, and data insufficient to classify 23 cases. None of the boys had been away from the School more than eighteen

11. Gault, Robert H. *Parole: More Light Wanted*. Jour. Crim. Law and Criminol. Feb. 1921. pp. 485-486.

12. Eubank, Earle E. *A Survey of St. Charles Boys*. Bull. Dept. Pub. Welfare, Chicago, Ill. Sept., 1917. pp. 19.

months, the majority not over nine or ten months. The findings were as follows: number who have made good, 95 or 46.8 per cent; number who have not made good, 85 or 41.8 per cent; and information lacking 23, or 11.4 per cent. Considering only those classified, we find there are 52.8 per cent making good and 47.2 per cent failing.

**Iowa.** The record of boys under control of the state agent of the *Training School for Boys*<sup>13</sup> at Eldora is given in the biennial report for 1917-1918. Data presented concerning the conduct at last report of boys received prior to July 1, 1916 and continuing under supervision for the year ending June 30, 1917 and June 30, 1918 are given in Table III, and are reconstructed from statistical tables presented in the report.

TABLE III. SUCCESS RECORD OF BOYS ON PAROLE  
FROM IOWA TRAINING SCHOOL FOR BOYS.

	June 30, 1917		June 30, 1918	
	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
Excellent.....	113	23.5	56	23.0
Good.....	241	50.3	111	45.5
Fair.....	54	11.2	46	18.8
Unsatisfactory.....	72	15.0	31	12.7
Total classified.....	480	100.0	244	100.0
Unknown.....	60		58	
Total.....	540		302	

**New Jersey.** During the fiscal year of 1917-1918, 639 boys were paroled from the *State Home for Boys*<sup>14</sup> at Jamesburg; of this number 200 cases, or 31 per cent, were returned for violation of parole by July 1, 1919. During the fiscal year of 1918-1919, 409 were paroled and of this number 42 boys, or 10 per cent, were returned as violators of parole by July 1, 1919.

**New York.** Since January 1, 1905, 4410 boys have been under parole supervision of the *New York House of Refuge*<sup>15</sup> at Randall's Island, and are recorded on June 30, 1919, apparently on the basis of record at time supervision expired for those over 21 years of age, as follows:

Doing well.....	2504 or 56.78 per cent
Not doing well.....	1079 or 24.47 per cent
Unknown....	827 or 18.75 per cent

13. Training School for Boys, Eldora, Ia. *Biennial Report*, 1918. p. 75.

14. New Jersey State Home for Boys, Jamesburg, N. J. *Annual Report*, 1919. pp. 20, 21.

15. New York House of Refuge, Randall's Island, N. Y. *Annual Report*, 1919. pp. 49-56.



It is also reported that of the 3081 boys beyond the age of supervision, 1619 or 52.55 per cent were doing well when supervision expired. Of the 1329 cases under 21 years of age 885, or 66.5 per cent are out of the institution and doing well.

The report of the protestant parole agent of the *State Agricultural and Industrial School*<sup>16</sup> at Industry states that of 599 boys under active supervision on June 30, 1919, 84 per cent were doing well and 16 per cent were doing poorly. The Catholic parole agent reports that "about 80 per cent live within the law until they have attained their 21 birthday. We are reasonably sure that we are able to reclaim about 50 per cent."

**Washington.** A follow-up study<sup>17</sup> of boys committed from King County Juvenile Court to the *Boys' Parental School* and the *State Training School* between 1911 and 1915 gave the following results: of 408 cases, 8.3 per cent were recommitted to other state and reformatory institutions and 4.7 per cent are at liberty but frequently in trouble; thus 13.0 per cent have proved themselves unsatisfactory in their citizenship following their release.

#### INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS FOR GIRLS

**California.** During a period of four years, a total of 161 girls have been paroled or released from the *California School for Girls*<sup>18</sup> at Ventura. Of these cases the following conditions were recorded for June 30, 1918:

Died.....	1	3 or 2 per cent
Made good to date.....	98	61 per cent
Failed.....	60	37 per cent

**Connecticut.** The biennial report<sup>19</sup> of the *Industrial School for Girls* at Middletown contains the statement that of 163 girls on parole from the School, 107 are making a good record, 24 a doubtful one, and 5 a poor one; 9 are in institutions receiving medical attention.

16. State Agricultural and Industrial School, Industry, N. Y. *Annual Report*, 1919. pp. 66-77.

17. Phillips, Alan A. *A Study of the After-career of 408 Delinquent Boys who were Committed from the King County Juvenile Court to the Boys' Parental School and the State Training School during the Five-year Period 1911-1915.* Seattle Juvenile Court Report for Year 1916. pp. 33-37.

18. California School for Girls, Ventura, Cal. *Biennial Report*, 1918. pp. 18, 19.

19. Industrial School for Girls, Middletown, Conn. *Biennial Report*, 1920. pp. 47.

**Iowa.** The report of the state agent of the *Industrial School for Girls*<sup>20</sup> at Mitchellville gives the conduct classification of 97 girls under supervision on June 30, 1916 as follows:

Excellent.....	47 or 48.5 per cent
Good.....	30 or 31.0 per cent
Fair.....	9 or 9.2 per cent
Unsatisfactory.....	11 or 11.3 per cent

**Kansas.** The parole officer of the *Girls Industrial School*<sup>21</sup> at Beloit states that about 70 per cent of the girls on parole under her charge have made satisfactory records.

#### RELATION OF INTELLIGENCE TO SUCCESS

Several reports contain data which may be interpreted to indicate the relation of intelligence to success. The importance of the subject and the practicability of determining intelligence level by laboratory diagnosis warrants a brief discussion of some of the findings. In considering the relationship, the success record percentages must be considered with reference to the usual intelligence distribution of the parole population. For example, the statement that 40 per cent of those failing on parole are feeble-minded would indicate a normal proportion if the average for the whole group were 40 per cent feeble-minded.

The report of the *California School for Girls*<sup>22</sup> records that of 60 failures, 38 per cent were feeble-minded. The findings of Dr. Grace M. Fernald recorded in the same report indicates that 34.3 per cent of the School population are defective, indicating but a slightly higher ratio of failures among the feeble-minded cases. It may be implied that 62 per cent of failures and that 66.7 per cent of the School population were above the feeble-minded grade. Dr. Fernald reported that no evidence was found of correlation between intelligence and the probability of reform.

The report of the *Preston School of Industry*<sup>23</sup> presents the following data concerning failures among 193 cases:

Entire group.....	37 per cent failed
31 normal.....	29 per cent failed
53 dull-normal.....	24 per cent failed
49 borderline.....	41 per cent failed
60 defective.....	44 per cent failed

20. Industrial School for Girls, Mitchellville, Iowa. *Biennial Report*, 1916. p. 59.

21. Girls' Industrial School, Beloit, Kans. *Biennial Report*, 1918. p. 14.

22. *op. cit.*, pp. 19, 43-72.

23. *op. cit.*, pp. 105.



A recent study by the California Bureau of Juvenile Research<sup>24</sup> of boys from *Whittier State School* indicated a slight tendency for boys of higher intelligence to have a better record of success than those of lower mentality. The tendency for 223 cases is indicated by a coefficient of correlation of  $+0.19$  (P. E. .053) and is also shown by the percentages given in Table IV. It was the failure of a number of average-normals which reduced the correlation considerably.

TABLE IV. SUCCESS RECORD OF DELINQUENT BOYS AND SOCIAL INTELLIGENCE GROUPS, BY PER CENT.

	Doing well Per cent	Doing fairly well Per cent	Doing poorly Per cent
Superior.....	100.0	0.0	0.0
Average-normal.....	54.0	13.5	32.5
Dull-normal.....	45.5	34.2	20.3
Borderline.....	37.1	35.4	27.5
Feeble-minded.....	31.3	31.3	37.4
Total	40.0	29.4	29.6

The same study indicated a wide range of variations when the relation of intelligence to success record and occupational grouping was considered: e. g., there was a positive correlation of  $+0.74$  (P. E. .065) for those engaged in agricultural occupations;  $+0.15$  (P. E. .094) for U. S. Service;  $+0.03$  (P. E. .096) for manufacturing and mechanical industries;  $-0.07$  (P. E. .224) for clerical occupations;  $-0.23$  (P. E. .164) for domestic and personal service; and  $-0.51$  (P. E. .144) for those engaged in transportation.

A study<sup>25</sup> of the relation of intelligence to success of 26 delinquent girls indicated that for this group the "mental tests were not prognostic of their success after leaving the Big Sisters Home."

Combining data given in a study of parole violators by Dr. Christian<sup>26</sup> and intelligence classifications of the usual reformatory population given in a study by Dr. Harding<sup>27</sup>, we have the following comparative data. Of the 1000 reformatory prisoners, 41 per cent were normal, 48 per cent subnormal, and 11 per cent custodial; of the 500 parole violators 6 per cent were normal, 76 per cent subnormal, and 18 per cent custodial. It is not known to what extent the fact of parole violation may have influenced social intelligence classification in the latter group.

24. Clark, Willis W. *Success Record of Delinquent Boys in Relation to Intelligence*. Jour. Delinq., V-5, Sept. 1920. pp. 174-182.

25. Pintner, Rudolf and Reamer, Jeanette. *Mental Ability and Future Success of Delinquent Girls*. Jour. Delinq. III-2, March, 1918. pp. 74-80.

26. Christian, Frank L. *A Study of Five Hundred Parole Violators*. New York State Reformatory, Elmira, N. Y. 1918. pp. 31.

27. Harding, John R. *One Thousand Reformatory Prisoners as seen in Perspective*, New York State Reformatory, Elmira, N. Y. 1919. pp. 12.

In speaking of the various grades of feeble-minded, Dr. Wallace<sup>28</sup> superintendent of *Wrentham State School* states that

regular, good habits, well established in the school appear to have more to do with a girl's success after she has been placed on parole than does her intelligence rating. The low and middle grade moron seems more capable of benefiting from institution experience than the high grade girl. . . . Important as intelligence is to an individual in making her adjustment to her environment yet that quality alone is not sufficient.

Dr. Bernstein<sup>29</sup> has recently expressed the opinion on the basis of experience at *Rome State School* that

from one-third to one-half of all the feeble-minded and mental defectives that must receive state care and training can well be cared for under a reasonable system of colony and parole care and supervision. . . .

#### CONCLUSIONS

Studies and reports indicating the general quality of response of paroled and discharged prisoners and delinquents in institutions have been found for nineteen institutions with a range from 51 to 87 per cent succeeding. The arithmetic average, or mean, for the whole group is 72.2 per cent making a satisfactory response. The average success record for the eight penitentiaries and reformatories was 73.4 per cent, for the seven industrial schools for boys 72.9 per cent, and for the four industrial schools for girls 69.1 per cent.

Few state institutions have made scientific studies of the success record of their inmates and the data given may be taken as a rough indication only. Among the needs for a comprehensive survey which would afford a scientific study of the factors related to success are a detailed classification of success record, a measure of vocational ability, an objective method of measuring the degree of supervision afforded and the influence of other environmental factors, as well as measures of intelligence and temperament.

The data presented in the section on relation of intelligence to success record indicate that it is one of the important items to be considered in social diagnosis, but due consideration should be given supplementary factors. The extent to which feeble-minded may be satisfactorily placed in society under supervision has not been demonstrated, but indications are that colony care and parole will meet a demand for suitable care of many otherwise asocial persons. With the development of an efficient administration and a proper understanding of the cases we may look forward to an economical and humane method of treating wards of the State.

28. Wrentham State School, Wrentham, Mass. *Annual Report*, 1920. pp. 14.

29. Bernstein, Charles. *Colony and Parole Care for Dependents and Defectives*. New York State Hospital Quarterly, VI-2, Feb. 1921. p. 139.



# The Journal of Delinquency

Published bi-monthly by The California Bureau  
of Juvenile Research

WHITTIER, CALIFORNIA

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Entered as second-class matter March 27, 1916 at the Post Office at Whittier, California, under the Act of August 24, 1912. Acceptance for mailing at special rate of postage provided for in Section 1103, Act of October 3, 1917, authorized August 3, 1918.

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Vol. VI

July, 1921

No. 4

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## JUVENILE RESEARCH IN HAWAII

The University of Hawaii has been granted an appropriation of \$15,000 by the territorial legislature for the establishing of a psychological and psychopathic clinic. The act provides for the study of the nature, causes, and treatment of mental abnormality, and authorizes the making of examinations or special investigations at the request of any public or private organization, or any parent or guardian. Special mention is made of the public schools, the industrial schools, the juvenile court, the asylum for the insane, and benevolent organizations. The director of the clinic is authorized to conduct investigations, publish results, and "to give instruction pertaining to mental disease and defect," subject to the approval of the university administration.

Upon the approval of the act, President A. L. Dean of the University of Hawaii invited the California Bureau of Juvenile Research to send representatives to Hawaii to make a preliminary survey, and to make specific recommendations concerning the organization and establishment of the new department. At the time of this writing

the survey has just been completed, and a report rendered to President Dean. The clinic will probably open with the University in September of this year.

The establishing of this clinic marks a new epoch, scientifically, for the Hawaiian Islands. Already much interest has been taken in other lines of research, and liberal support has been given to laboratories for the study of sugar cane, pineapples, volcanology and anthropology. Three well-equipped experiment stations in Honolulu have been engaged for some time in the study of the agricultural products of the Islands. The new psychological laboratory will represent a similar approach to the study of child development and welfare.

One of the perplexing problems of the territory is that of race differences. Hawaii is the "melting pot of the nations," and the resulting cosmopolitan nature of the population makes educational and child-welfare work more than ordinarily difficult. The proper classification, segregation, and training of these children is the desire of every public-spirited citizen, of which there are many. There is probably no richer field in the United States for the study of race development and the practical solution of race problems.

It is to be hoped that the spirit which actuates the institution of this new work will find a hearty response on the mainland, and that there may be general cooperation in the development of this progressive territory. (J. H. W.)

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## QUOTATIONS

### CLINICAL PSYCHOLOGY AND SOCIAL IMPROVEMENT

The two most promising fields open at present for the services of the clinical psychologist are, in my judgment, the elementary schools and the juvenile court. No child should pass through either without receiving a careful physical and mental examination by the best of experts. Every correction possible to human betterment should be discovered and righted. Intelligence scales should be perfected. Better standards of living and doing should be set up. The normal ideas of the people should be aroused and strengthened. We should increase our knowledge of the organic weaknesses and mental defects of the children, including the causes and remedies. Finally in the scientific reconstruction of education that must follow as a result of the war, the clinical psychologist must lead the way in setting up right ideals and standards of education, and in presenting the truth with sufficient clearness to be catching and impelling.—*G. W. A. Luckey*. Summary of address before American Psychological Association, 1920. *Psychological Bulletin*, XVIII-2, Feb. 1921. pp. 82.



## EUGENICAL ASPECTS OF INTELLIGENCE

The practical bearing of the data here presented is, I think, clear. It tends to confirm and emphasize the fact that a child's mentality is largely the result of hereditary forces. Therefore whatever a state can do to encourage the continuance of its good stocks, and to restrict the propagation of the defective, will prove a powerful lever to raise the level of its own intelligence. Such measures are more vitally important than all that education could accomplish. No educational system in the world could bridge over such differences of mental endowment as are shown in the foregoing tables.

The new generations may be compared to an ever-increasing army of immigrants. Important as it is to educate and provide for them, once they are here, it is even more important to exercise some selection before admitting them. For whatever their quality is, such eventually will be the quality of the state. (Kate Gordon: *The Influence of Heredity on Mental Ability*, Fourth Biennial Report of Children's Department, California State Board of Control, 1918-20. p. 57.)

### LICENSING STAGE CHILDREN IN PORTLAND

Dr. S. C. Kohs, of the Court of Domestic Relations of Portland, Oregon, in a recent issue of the *Survey* contributes the list of the regulations which have been placed into effect by Judge Jacob Kanzler, relative to the licensing of children who are employed for theater exhibitions:

1. No child is to be employed during school hours (except Wednesday, between 2 and 5 p. m.), unless it is proved to the satisfaction of the court that the child is receiving proper school instruction to the amount of at least 25 hours per week.

2. No child under 12 will be permitted to appear on the stage. (Exceptions will be made only when in the judgment of the court this appearance will not violate the sense and spirit of these regulations.)

3. In case of a non-resident child, no permit will be issued unless the child is accompanied by a parent or guardian duly designated in writing and attested before a notary public by the child's parents or guardian.

4. Children will be prohibited from taking part in any act which is obscene, indecent or immoral, or dangerous to life or limb of such child.

5. As a result of a mental test made by this court, without charge, the child must show at least average normal or superior intelligence.

6. As a result of pedagogical tests made by this court, without charge, the child must be at least at grade for his age, or accelerated pedagogically.

7. As a result of a physical examination by the court physician (a woman for girls or a man for boys), without charge, there must be a clear indication that the child is of normal or of superior physical development and is not laboring under any physical handicap.

8. At least forty-eight hours' notice must be given the court before a license is issued.

9. In case of refusal to license, a written notice of reasons therefore may be requested by the applicant.

10. No charge whatever shall be made for issuing licenses.

11. Any citizen of the county may apply for a revocation of any permit issued. Hearing must be held within 24 hours, at which the interests of the theater manager, the child and the complainant shall be represented.

12. No feeble-minded, idiotic, deformed, or crippled child may be exhibited.
13. Before a permit may be issued evidence must be presented by the applicant that the child is receiving proper intellectual and moral instruction.
14. In all cases, the parent, guardian, or legal custodian, must apply for the permit in company with the child.
15. The conditions of the employment must not be detrimental to the health, strength, education or the ethical development of the child.

### THE HIGH COST OF THE POOR FARM

The county poor farm in Mississippi is an especially expensive institution, because it continually provides business for itself, by the improper care which it takes of feeble-minded paupers. When the poor farm assumes responsibility for a feeble-minded female and then allows her to bear children of like mentality with herself, while she is under its care, it is manifest that the care extended to this woman is the means of helping her bear these children which are bound to be paupers, because they are short-witted. The Mississippi Mental Hygiene Commission reports that Dr. Thomas H. Haines, in his visits to about three-fourths of the poor farms of Mississippi, has found eight instances of feeble-minded persons who have married since they have been in the poor farms, and all of these women have born feeble-minded children.

Dr. Haines has found more than one instance of feeble-minded children born in poor houses, and their fathers and mothers were brother and sister. He has found more than one instance of three generations of illegitimate feeble-minded born in the same poor house.

In a north Mississippi poor house, a white boy of 5 years is the son of an unmarried woman who has the mentality of a 6-year-old child, and she has been in the poor house continuously for six years. The father is reputed to be the good-for-nothing husband of this mother's feeble-minded sister. The chances for happiness in this life for this boy are very slim. And that he will ever make his own living is beyond the realm of reasonable expectation. This poor farm is likely to be his domicile as long as he lives. Some orphanage will probably take him for a few years, but that he will go back to the poor house is almost as certain as that summer will succeed winter. The poor farm should have prevented his coming into existence.

Poor farms are not organized for this preventive work. It should be made the special business of a state institution to train and care for feeble-minded persons, to segregate them so that there shall not be an increase of this class of paupers and criminals. Mississippi has long delayed this important piece of economic and humane endeavor on behalf of her mentally defective people. It is an eminently sane procedure for the citizens of Mississippi that they spend a little money now to establish and maintain an institution for the care of the feeble-minded, in order to stop the increase of this class of dependents.

An appropriation of \$200,000 is being asked for in connection with the establishment of the Mississippi School and Colony for the Feeble-minded, and it is certain this appropriation will save more than that amount to the people of the State, by taking care of some of the feeble-minded, training them to work for their own support, and preventing the increase of feeble-minded criminals and paupers. *News Bulletin of the Mississippi Society for Mental Hygiene, Jan. 1920.*



## PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

**Chapin, F. Stuart:** *Field Work and Social Research*. New York: The Century Co., 1920. pp. 224.

This book presents methods and techniques which have been used in the scientific investigation of social conditions by various agencies, together with an analysis of the factors involved in social investigation. It is valuable as a reference book and especially suitable as a text for students of social research. (W. W. C.)

**Christian, Frank L.:** *How We Obtain Detailed Information Concerning our Inmates and their Environment*. Elmira, N. Y., 1919. pp. 22.

This pamphlet contains copies of letters and detailed questionnaires which are sent out to parents, teacher of last school attended, the wife (if any), the family physician, the pastor, the business employer, a personal friend, the community social worker (if any), the parole officer of the home city, and (if previously convicted) to the institution to which he was committed. This method, while of course inferior to that of having the home and neighborhood visited and developmental and family history obtained by a trained field-worker, is suggestive and affords a valuable supplement and verification of the data obtained from the incoming delinquent. (W. W. C.)

**Clow, Frederick:** *Principles of Sociology with Educational Applications*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1920. pp. 436.

The need for application of sociological principles to the institutions of society is being recognized. This volume by Dr. Clow presents a well-prepared and suggestive text-book in general sociology with illustrative material and applications particularly suitable for teachers. The book is divided into three parts,—Factors of society, Social organization, and Social progress—with a total of fifteen chapters. Long quotations from accepted authorities, topics and problems for discussion, and chapter references are features. A book of this kind has been needed and it will undoubtedly be used extensively in teachers' colleges and normal schools. (W. W. C.)

**Cole, G. D. H.:** *Social Theory*. New York: Frederick A. Stokes Co., 1920. pp. 220. Price \$1.50.

This book deals principally with the functions and interrelation of associations within the community, with the nature of association, and with the various forms, motives, and problems arising out of their actual workings. With the theoretical assumption that the object of social organization is essentially the fullest self-expression of all the members, Mr. Cole analyzes present-day society and advances a program of social reconstruction which he feels will almost certainly be directed by such strong and purposeful forms of organization as Trade Unionism and Cooperation. The principal value of the book may be the stimulation of thought and discussion of a problem which is of paramount present-day importance. (W. W. C.)

**Dick, J. Lawson:** *Defective Housing and the Growth of Children*. London: George Allen and Unwin, Ltd., 1919. pp. 94.

A study prompted by the revelation of delayed physical development and mental defect among English children as a whole. Rickets was found to be the prevailing defect and the book is confined to a discussion of this disease. A more descriptive title might have been "Defective Housing and Rickets." The evidence

indicated that rickets is not a congenital defect. In describing the rickety child the author draws a splendid picture of the feeble-minded child; but the mental defect thus described is due to rickets, according to this writer. Rickets is found to be less associated with either inadequate or poor feeding than with lack of fresh air and sunshine. Thus, while defective feeding may be a contributory factor, defective housing is the prime causative factor in rickets. The data from which these conclusions were reached are indicated, but not presented at all in detail. A study so extensive and interesting would have warranted the addition of some of the technical details to attest the scientific accuracy of the study. (E. K. B.)

**Ellwood, Charles A.:** *Sociology and Modern Social Problems*. Chicago: American Book Co., 1919. pp. 146.

This standard text book in elementary principles of sociology has been revised and enlarged. The fundamental method of the book is to illustrate the working of the chief factors of social organization and evolution by the study of concrete problems. As far as possible the family is used to illustrate the origin, development, structure, and functions of human institutions, but additional concrete problems of contemporary social life are briefly analyzed. Among the additional subjects are crime, poverty and pauperism, immigration, the Negro problem, socialism, and education and social progress. For the beginner in the study of social problems the method of approach presented in this volume is undoubtedly the best. (W. W. C.)

**Galloway, T. W.:** *The Sex Factor in Human Life*. New York: The American Social Hygiene Association, 1921. pp. 142.

Dr. Galloway has earned an enviable distinction for his ability to interpret biological facts and biological philosophy in ways helpful to human nature. In this book of questions and answers designed for voluntary group discussion, he has perhaps made his most ambitious attempt to bring about that reconciliation with and acceptance of the basic biology of human life, pushing his inquiry and submitting his solutions in great detail. This book of 142 pages offers the reader a ready means, almost predigested, of placing himself abreast of this movement to ground the code of conduct on a kind of ethicalized biology rather than on tradition, and incidentally he may pick up some ideas new and illuminating to him. However, such a book presupposes much instruction and a willingness to entertain rationalized interpretation of sex phenomena. (Vernon M. Cady)

**Jewdine, J. W.:** *Observations on English Criminal Law and Procedure*. London: P. S. King and Son, 1920. pp. 99. Price 2s 6d.

A severe criticism of present-day methods in dealing with crime and criminals in England is the subject of this publication. The writer presents statistical data and illustrative cases which indicate an immoderate use of prison sentences, frequently based on insufficient evidence or improper procedure. Numerous practical suggestions economically and socially advisable from the viewpoint of both the individual and society are given; the aim of the state should be rehabilitation or reformation rather than punishment. A Birlaw, or neighborhood, court is suggested as the most feasible method of dealing with juvenile offenders. (W. W. C.)

**Kohs, S. C.:** *The Block-Design Tests*. Reprinted from *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, III-5, Oct. 1920. pp. 357-376.

These tests promise to be a valuable addition to our psychological measuring rods, for they are performance tests especially devised to eliminate the language



factor and standardized to measure intelligence. The work of standardization has been thoroughly and carefully done and the tests meet the requirements of simplicity of material, economy of time and uniformity of procedure. The author throws out most interesting hints of some of the questions raised by his study of these tests and promises a longer monograph with fuller discussion of much of the pertinent material omitted from this first presentation. (J. M.)

**Kuhlman, A. F.:** *Social Survey of the City of Jackson and Madison County, Tennessee.* Jackson, Tenn.: Jackson-McClaran Chapter, American Red Cross, 1920. pp. 139.

Essentially a community survey by the agencies of the community, this report presents a "study of social and living conditions made for the purpose of building a plan for community welfare and progress upon a knowledge of community problems." Eleven committees under the direction of Mr. Kuhlman furnished descriptive and statistical data and definite recommendations in the fields of health, housing and sanitation, education, family welfare, child welfare, recreation, church life, industry, agriculture and government. Studies such as this afford valuable comparative data concerning communities and are especially valuable in indicating the practical needs of the community under consideration. (W. W. C.)

**Leary, Daniel Bell:** *A Group-Discussion Syllabus of Sociology.* Buffalo, N. Y.: University of Buffalo, 1920. pp. 42. Price 75 cents.

This syllabus includes thirty-two topics relating to (a) general considerations, (b) evolution and society, (c) social control, and (d) present problems and the future. A series of questions and references under each topic are given to form the basis of study and discussion. The course as a whole is intended to prepare for more advanced work in educational philosophy. (W. W. C.)

**Liggett, Hazel M.:** *The Relations of Wages to the Cost of Living in Los Angeles 1915 to 1920.* Los Angeles: Southern California Sociological Society, 1921. pp. 11. Price 15 cents.

A scientific study of relation of wages to cost of living for five years in Los Angeles, using federal, state, and local statistics. Taking prices in 1915 as a basis there was an increase of 107.4 per cent in cost of living by 1920; during this period wages in a group of occupations increased 76.2 per cent. (W. W. C.)

**Marden, Orison Swett:** *Success Fundamentals.* New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1920. pp. 312.

A popular dissertation with chapters on relation of health, efficiency, confidence, and other factors to success. The method is that of a lecture series, exhortative and inspirational, with frequent reference to specific instances of success.

(W. W. C.)

**O'Shea, M. V.:** *The Faults of Childhood and Youth.* Chicago: Frederick J. Drake and Co., 1920. pp. 286. Price \$1.50.

Professor O'Shea contributes this volume to the Parents Library Series, of which he is also the editor. Children's faults, he says, may be classified as those due to conflict between natural traits and social conditions, of which distribution, heedlessness and bullying are examples, as those due to wrong training of which incorrigibility, thievery and loafing are illustrations, and as those traits regarded as faults that are not so in reality of which fibbing, obstinacy and unresponsiveness are types. Professor O'Shea has perhaps strained a good many scientific

points in order to divide his roster of faults, and therefore his book into these neat subdivisions. The parent-reader will probably take the classification literally. However, the parent with a "problem" and the teacher with several of them will probably gain a new point of view, discover new lines of attack and see new meanings in old human difficulties in these pages. When trouble brews, turn to the appropriate chapter, read the diagnosis, prognosis, and apply the remedy. (Vernon M. Cady)

**Ripley, G. Sherman:** *Games for Boys*. New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1920. pp. 256. Price \$1.90.

A well organized volume including physical games, sports, and camping methods is presented by a scout executive of Boy Scouts of America. It is essentially a text book of games, exercises, and water sports for boys of adolescent and post-adolescent periods designed for use of directors of boys' clubs, Y.M.C.A.'s, Boy Scout leaders, and others interested in a recreational program for boys. (W. W. C.)

**Spaulding, Edith R.:** *Three Cases of Larceny in which the Antisocial Behavior Appeared to Represent an Effort to Compensate for Emotional Repression*. New York: National Committee for Mental Hygiene, 1920. pp. 21.

An analysis of mental conflicts of three women and the resultant emotional repression an effort to compensate which seems to have been responsible for their stealing. (W. W. C.)

**Storey, Moorfield:** *Problems of To-day*. New York: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1920. pp. 258. Price \$1.50.

This volume contains a series of lectures given under "The Godkin Lectures" memorial at Harvard College in March 1920. The five subjects are: The use of parties, Lawlessness, Race prejudice, The labor question, and Our foreign relations, including in all a timely and well-balanced discussion concerning the essentials of free government and the duties of the citizen. (W. W. C.)

**Watson, John B.:** *Psychology from the Standpoint of a Behaviorist*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1919. pp. 429.

Brushing aside the traditional classification of psychological topics under such terms as consciousness, perception, will, image and the like, with the frank acknowledgment that he does not know their meaning, the author attempts to place before his students the human being as he is and to encourage them to view the organism as a whole, to see in the performance of each and all of its acts the working of an integrated personality. The chapters on instinct and emotion are particularly strong. Instead of the usual orderly and menagerie-like marshalling of these spontaneous responses, he would reduce the original and fundamental emotional reactions to three: fear, rage, and love. Instinct is defined as "a combination of explicit congenital responses unfolding serially under appropriate stimulation." A reflex is "the simplest type of activity that can ordinarily be produced." To obtain a scientific classification of instincts, long and careful studies by the genetic method are necessary. Such studies are still only in their beginnings, so that as yet one cannot accurately classify instincts. The consolidation of emotional, instinctive and habit activities results in various attitudes. Personality is what we started with plus what we have lived through. The chapter on personality and its disturbance is suggestive and helpful. As a textbook for the young



student of human behavior, its directness and its encouragement of scientifically accurate, first-hand observations, make it a safer and more interesting starting point for his further study than are some of the "beginners psychologies" which have been widely used. (J. M.)

## PERIODICAL LITERATURE

**The Need for the Early Diagnosis and Treatment of Potential Delinquency in Case of Mental Defect.** The cases here referred to are those "in which timely advice and medical treatment will prevent, or tend to prevent, the development of delinquency in the insane and mentally defective; and also in those who are recognized as borderline cases." Without doubt preliminary medical and psychological investigations would result not only in an appreciable decrease in delinquency and crime, but also in immeasurable saving to the individual concerned, to his family, to the courts, and to society in general. "My concern here is to call attention to the fact that sufficient opportunity for early diagnosis and treatment do not at present exist." The solution would be the establishment of clinics (at least one in each city) for mental diseases where those who have not been to court may go voluntarily, or be sent by physicians, by social or charitable organizations, or by any interested person. The courts are full of cases, like the illustrations given, of actual delinquency due to low mentality, or mental disease, in whom "delinquency would have been avoided had such opportunities, as are here advocated, been available for this purpose."—*W. Norwood East. Studies in Mental Inefficiency, II-2, April 15, 1921. pp. 34-40. (M. Eleanor Perry)*

**Colony and Parole Care for Dependents and Defectives.** With a population of 2107 inmates, Rome State School has provided for over one-third outside the institution as follows: in colonies, 547 cases; on parole at home, 127 cases; on parole working, 105 cases. Twenty-five colonies, 14 for boys and 11 for girls, have been established in different sections of New York State. This care has resulted in a financial saving to the state of over \$500,000 in housing, and over \$200,000 in annual maintenance. Of greater value is the conservation of humans and human resources in a most humanitarian manner. The colony units are practically self-supporting, develop hopefulness, self-respect, and feeling of independence among the boys and girls, and are capable of unlimited extension. Many of our social misfits and mentally alienated subjects need only hospitals where they may be temporarily placed for classification and treatment when actually ill, and then changes in environment under supervision. From one-third to one-half of all feeble-minded and mental defectives that must receive state care and training can well be cared for under a reasonable system of colony and parole care and supervision.—*Charles Bernstein, New York State Hospital Quarterly, VI-2, Feb. 1921. pp. 133-140. (W. W. C.)*

**A Parents' Study of Children's Lies.** Based on a collection of 673 instances of lying made from reminiscences of college students and the boys and girls of junior high school. The purpose of the study was to determine what emotions, situations and impulsions make children lie, their attitude toward their lies and also to define a standard of morals in regard to lying which may be of use to the average parent. The first impression from the data is the universality of the experience,

The main causes for lying seem to be (1) intellectual deflections—childish imaginings, usually the expression of immaturity which experience with real things tends to correct and clarify and education to correct, (2) emotional impulsions such as fear of punishment, disapproval, ridicule, desire for sympathy, etc., (3) wilful inventions lacking in emotional intensity and more or less premediated. The whole problem of truth telling is essentially a home problem. Habits are fairly well established by school age. The parents' judgment of a child's lie should be based upon the motive back of it. Intellectual deflections should be explained and the child's thought clarified, emotional impulsions should be understood and forgiven as often as punished. Wilful inventions are the most difficult to overcome and need patient study and sympathetic care. Always there should be complete frankness, interest and sincere honesty on the part of the parents.—*Eugenie Andruss Leonard*. Pedagogical Seminary, XXVII-2. June, 1920. pp. 105-136. (J. M.)

**Motion Pictures and Crime.** The moving picture as an agent of publicity with its immense daily audience of young people has great possibilities of developing in them a spirit of true Americanism. But wrongly used it readily becomes the training school for crime. Those who are mentally deficient are especially suggestible. They cannot foresee and weigh the consequences of their acts and there is a lack of willingness to exercise self-restraint. That is why one expects a majority of a certain kind of crimes to be committed by persons of retarded mental development. Motion pictures containing scenes vividly portraying defiance of law and crimes of all degrees, may by an ending which shows the criminal brought to justice, carry a moral to the intelligent adult, but that which impresses the mind of the mentally young and colors their imagination is the excitement and bravado accompanying the criminal act, while the moral goes unheeded. Poster advertising usually contains the glaring and exciting portion of the plot, with no possibility of right interpretation. Those young people who are limited to the advertising posters for their entertainment may get evil and anti-social suggestions from them. More careful control of these posters would seem to be of even greater necessity than that of the play itself. It is just on account of this susceptibility to suggestion that the mentally retarded criminal and the child criminal need a special kind of treatment. Proper control of their environment is the one factor which will do much to make them respectable members of society. If the motion picture is to become the educational force that it is capable of becoming, the censorship must be an internal one. The future of the motion picture is limited only by the foresight of its leaders.—*A. T. Poffenberger*. Scientific Monthly, XII-4, Apr. 1921. pp. 336-339. (M. S. C.)

**The Dependent Child and the Foster Home.** South Carolina has officially recognized responsibility for her children in the organization of the South Carolina State Board of Public Welfare and Child Placing Department. Besides normal dependent children there are also referred to this department the feeble-minded delinquent boys and girls and children in need of boarding homes or free temporary homes. These children are classified and referred to other agencies or institutions such as the school for feeble-minded or the industrial school. The child in need of supervision is placed in a temporary home. The homes are divided roughly into three groups: the highest type, which is the ideal home of comfort and refinement; the middle class, or average home; and the third class, which is a home



still lower than the middle-class group. The first is desirable, but few children can be found whose requirements will come up to the standards asked for. The middle class homes furnish the majority of requests and they do not require as much of the child. The people of the third class are not so well educated or so refined but they are good honest hard-working people. Often, in these homes, besides an improvement in the child, is seen a surprising change in the morale of the family. —Mrs. Mildred L. Wooten. *National Humane Review*, IX-5, May, 1921. p. 83

(George A. Brammer)

**Mexican Child Welfare.** The first child welfare congress held in Mexico City was well attended and was divided into six sections: medical pediatrics, surgical pediatrics, eugenics, child legislation, education, and child hygiene. Regulation of industrial child labor, establishment of juvenile courts and agencies for protection of children, meeting the needs of the public school system, and provision for child hygiene were among the needs recognized by the conference.—Anna Kalet. *Survey*, XLVI-2, Apr. 9, 1921. pp. 49-50. (W. W. C.)

**Tonsils and Adenoids.** A Study Showing How the Removal of Enlarged and Diseased Tonsils Affects a Child's Work in School. School records of 31 children were investigated to find whether improvement followed the operation, and if it did, when it became apparent. A control group of children who had not had the operation was studied as a check. It was found that in the control group two-fifths of the children improve in each of the three 10-month periods considered, while of the children operated upon only one-third improve during the first period following the operation, but in the second period two-thirds showed a gain and in the third period all had improved. It would seem that we have good reason to believe that the removal of diseased adenoids and tonsils is a factor influencing the mental as well as the physical life of the school child.—A. H. MacPhail. *Pedagogical Seminary*, XXVII-2, June 1920. pp. 188-194. (J. M.)

**A Minimum Set of Tentative Physical Standards for Children of School Age.** Standards of physical growth and development of interest and value for education and hygiene, and practicable from the point of view of conditions existing in public school systems are of two kinds. The first are structural and anatomical, those giving evidence of size (height), mass (weight), number (teeth), significant external signs (pubic hair). The second group is functional or physiological, those which test power directly in such particulars as strength (forearm grip), respiratory power (lung capacity), muscular control (tapping). Standardized norms for each of these powers or functions have been obtained; those cases which fall within the attainment of the central 50 per cent are considered as being within the normal range of individual variation of a given age. The measurement of physical development is of importance in its relation to mentality and on its own account, and is being widely recognized owing to the new emphasis upon health.—G. B. Affleck. *Pedagogical Seminary*, XXVII-4, Dec. 1920. pp. 324-353. (W. W. C.)

**Recent Developments in Measuring Human Capacities.** The year 1920 is to be credited with definite advances in the field of mental measurements: "the extension of intelligence examinations in the public schools; the further development of rating scales for teachers and pupils ('a problem discovered but unsolved'); and the beginning of objective measurement in the realm of non-intellectual traits." In

connection with the current wide spread educational use of the tests there has been serious effort to state achievement in relation to intelligence, with negative results. This discrepancy indicates not that tests are inadequate to measure intelligence but rather that intelligence in itself is inadequate to produce success. In answer to the question, "What are the factors requisite to success?", Dr. June Downey has brought forth her "scale for the measurement of the volitional pattern" as a supplement to intelligence tests,—thus initiating "objective method in a field where our chief reliance hitherto has been upon subjective opinion."—*M. E. Haggerty*. *Journal of Educational Research*, III-4, April, 1921. pp. 241-253. (*M. Eleanor Perry*)

**Psychological Possibilities in the Deception Tests.** Of the four types of psychophysiological deception tests known the most reliable is that of the measurement of the systolic blood pressure of the subject while he is testifying. By means of apparatus the subject's blood pressure is taken from time to time while he is being cross examined. The effectiveness of the test depends almost entirely upon the construction and arrangement of the cross examination and its proper correlation with the blood pressure readings. The form of the blood pressure curve as it is related to the cross examination is carefully studied by the examiners and is found to show with great exactness the fluctuations of the witness' emotions during the telling of his story. After a most careful tryout under the direction of Major Yerkes and Dr. Angell of the National Research Council and also at Camp Greendale in the Psychological Training School it seems evident that the tests have a practical value in determining the truth or falsity of the various elements of the witness' story and that they could serve as a substitute for the oath now used in court procedure. They seem frequently to induce confession. The Camp Greendale experiments indicate that in the hands of an expert they are practically infallible and that even when given by partially trained examiners they have a fair degree of reliability. The writer concludes that at least a sufficient psychological background probably exists to qualify an expert upon deception in court and that the use of deception tests in connection with probation, office procedure and examination is beyond question justified.—*William M. Marston*. *Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology*, XI-4, Feb. 1921. pp. 552-570. (*J. M.*)

**The Selection of Mill Workers by Mental Tests.** The practical value of mental tests for the selection of efficient manual workers has been rendered questionable by the results obtained from intelligence examinations given to the employees of a large silk manufacturing company in Ohio. These results were in contrast to the positive results obtained in the correlation of intelligence with clerical ability in the same factory. Comprehensive performance tests, covering a wide range of mental and manual activity, were given to the four hundred mill workers, many of whom were foreign or illiterate. The correlation obtained between intelligence and productive ability was an unalterable zero for which the accompanying unfavorable conditions were not sufficient explanation. The conclusion is that "intelligence is not only not required in a modern silk mill for most operations, but may even be a detriment to steady, efficient routine work." This is to be explained by the efficient specialization and monotony of modern day machine work.—*Arthur S. Otis*. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, IV-4, Dec. 1920. pp. 339-342. (*M. Eleanor Perry*)



**The Sublimation of Non-Sexual Instincts.** Among the important contributions of psychoanalysis is the theory of sublimation. Although limited in Freud's investigations to the sex instinct, it may well be applied to other instincts. Dr. G. Stanley Hall has already discussed the importance of sublimation in relation to the instinct of anger, or pugnacity. Freud's theory of pansexualism is not substantiated by the findings of James, McDougall, Thorndike, and other students of instinct. All instincts, however, exist as the outcome of the biological struggle for existence, and thereby their original usefulness is demonstrated. The need for sublimation results from the changing needs of civilization, wherein emphasis is placed on the finer qualities. To merely repress these impulses is neither possible nor desirable, Freud having shown the dangers of such checking. To direct them into better and more acceptable channels, however, is beneficial to the individual and to society. *Anger* can be sublimated in the form of classroom rivalry, industrial competition, etc. Its most useful expression is in the form of righteous indignation with reference to social conditions. *Self-assertion* may be utilized in stimulating individual and group achievement. *Fear* may become a source of good if sublimated in avoidance of disease, or reasonable efforts toward self-preservation. One interesting form is the fear of being a coward, which strengthens the courage of the individual concerned. *Curiosity* may be directed into highly useful forms of inquiry, important among which is scientific investigation. Man cannot live without instincts and improvement of the social order depends upon their sublimation.—*W. R. Wells*. American Journal of Psychology, XXVIII-1, Mar. 1921. pp. 73-77. (J. H. W.)

**The Misuse of Instinct in the Social Sciences.** There are various forms of this misuse but the most serious confusion arises when an author uses the term, now to mean an act preformed with no reflection or consciousness and again in the stricter sense to imply an inherited action pattern. The vague employment of the term to well developed habit complexes such as the "instincts" listed in various books on educational psychology is absurd. Activity complexes can no longer be called instincts. Instincts are much simpler, or more elemental and more numerous than those usually set forth in psychological classifications. Habit complexes are built up on elementary and relatively minute instinctive bases but a particular habit complex need not of necessity be built directly upon any particular instinct or group of instincts. The aim of social and educational psychologists should be to discover the mechanisms by which habits are built up. Instincts should be regarded as the original, but not necessarily the immediate starting points in the process. To achieve the change in emphasis the inadequacy of the theory of instinctive control must be made manifest by exposing the current radical misconceptions regarding the nature and content of instincts. The future control of the race and its civilization lies less in selective breeding of the higher social qualities, important as this is, than through their transmission by social contact and control.—*L. L. Bernard*. Psychological Review, XXVIII-2, March 1921. pp. 96-119. (J. M.)

**The Need for a More Scientific Attitude in Education.** Many educators, superintendents and teachers in all fields need more of the requirements of the scientist than they now possess. They should make a more conscious effort toward the formulation and analysis of general aims. Once formulated these aims should be kept constantly in mind. The teacher would find great value in keeping exact records of

the errors of her pupils. The knowledge of the average teacher in regard to her class is far too hazy. The scientific attitude demands the open mind. The teacher dealing as she must with immature minds is seldom challenged and must watch herself closely if she is to keep the progressive scientific attitude. This attitude means the love of facts, persistence, and the sustained effort which carries forward a tedious task to a definite goal. Darwin's aims were definite. In his introduction to the *Origin of Species* he says "It occurred to me in 1837 that something might perhaps be made out of this question by *patiently accumulating* and *reflecting* on all sorts of facts which could possibly have any bearing on it. After 5 years work I allowed myself to speculate on this subject and drew up some short notes. These I enlarged in 1844 into a sketch of the conclusions when they seemed to be probable; from that period until the present day I have *steadily pursued* the same object. I hope I may be excused from entering on these personal details, as I give them to show that I have not been hasty in coming to a decision." Note the significant phrases. A careful thoughtful re-reading of this comment of Darwin is to be commended to every ambitious teacher and school man.—*Edgar Mendenhall*. Education, LXI-6, Feb. 1921. pp. 381-387. (J. M.)

**The Intelligence of Oregon State Industrial School Girls.** Mental examinations of the 35 girls in the School showed 10, or twenty-eight per cent, to be of average-normal intelligence; 10, or twenty-eight per cent, dull-normal; 7, or twenty per cent borderzone, and 8, or twenty-three per cent feeble-minded. The proportion of these four groups in society at large is: average-normal 60, dull-normal, 13, borderzone 5, and feeble-minded 2, per cent. Normality is only half as frequent among the State School girls as in society in general while dullness is twice, borderlinity four times, and feeble-mindedness about twelve times more frequent. Some counties supply more girls to the State School than one would expect on the basis of population statistics while others supply less than their county proportion.—*S. C. Kohns*. Oregon Voter. XXIII-7. (J. M.)

**The Comparative Intelligence of Prisoners.** The Army Group Test Alpha was given to 839 prisoners of the New Jersey State Prison prior to July 1, 1919. Compared with the results of the same test given to 6,541 white recruits at Camp Dix, New Jersey, the following conditions were found. The practical illiteracy is 3.6 per cent greater among the prisoners than in the army recruits. The average score of prisoners is 15 points below the average score of army recruits. Only 7 per cent of the prisoners obtained scores equivalent to the typical army officer, as compared with 13 per cent of the recruits. The lowest 50 per cent of prisoners equal the lowest 10 per cent of draft recruits, while the highest 10 per cent of prisoners do not exceed the highest 25 per cent of draft recruits. Therefore, the prison population as a whole, disregarding the excessive number of negroes and low grade foreigners, is inferior in intelligence to the army population as a whole. This comparison is affected, however, by selective influences which enter into the prison population. About 50 per cent of the prison population are low-grade foreigners and negroes. It was noted in the army that these two classes are of distinctly inferior mentality when compared with the native white population of this country. The proportion of foreigners and negroes in the prison is greater than the proportion of foreigners and negroes in the adult male population in the state as a whole. Therefore, when allowance is made for these selective influences the mental constitution of the prison as a whole corresponds very closely to the



average intelligence of the adult males of the state.—*Edgar A. Doll*. *Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology*, XI-2, Aug. 1920. pp. 191-198. (*Thelma R. Coffin*)

**The Possibilities and Methods of Increasing Parental Responsibility for Juvenile Delinquents.** The status of the delinquent child has been recognized in the statute law in all but one of the 48 states of the Union. In all but 16 states there has also been adopted in connection with the juvenile court acts a section providing for the punishment of those contributing to the delinquency or dependency of children. In the administration of the contributory delinquency sections there have been many difficulties. Some of the early statutes were carelessly drawn and proved unworkable, but in no state has there been a decision that a properly drawn contributory delinquency statute is unconstitutional. To meet the requirements it must assure the defendant the constitutional guarantees of appeal, jury trial, etc., it must be administered by a court which has general criminal jurisdiction and it must provide for the issuance of complaint in a proper manner. In at least 3 states these statutes have proven efficient in the prevention of delinquency. Laws, however, cannot do everything. The disintegration of family life is one of the greatest factors in the problem of juvenile delinquency and for this other remedies than legislation must be found. All the resources of society must be mobilized to overcome the tendencies that are producing delinquency. Better homes, the reduction of poverty, improvement in economic conditions which will permit earlier marriages—the whole problem of better citizenship—these are some of the things which it is the obligation of any community to consider. Courts, legislatures and public officers need much education and intelligent support from the public along these lines.—*Sanford Bates*. *Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology*, XII-1, May 1921. pp. 61-74. (J. M.)

**A Psychological Study of Motion Pictures in Relation to Venereal Disease Campaigns.** The problem with which the experiments reported here deal is that of the informational and educational effects of certain motion picture films used as propaganda in venereal disease control. Such pictures as "Fit to Win," "Damaged Goods," and others were shown. In the first picture results of venereal disease are shown, also the fact is brought out that continence is in no way injurious to health. One of the most important of the problems centered around the film is that of the influence upon the sexual behavior of those who have seen it, and this is likewise the most difficult about which to gain information. The chief emotions aroused immediately by the film "Fit to Win," are horror at the pictured effects of venereal disease and fear of infection. The picture does not produce any sexual excitement in the great majority of the men, in fact it creates temporary inhibition. After showing the picture it appears that an average of 48 per cent of those uninformed before seeing the picture, acquired accurate information concerning each point made. This does not take into account inaccurate information which will serve the purpose of the picture as well as the accurate. The most promising sphere of usefulness for motion pictures would seem to be a building up a public opinion which will favor the utilization of other educational methods which can be better adapted to the individual needs of the adolescent child.—*Karl S. Lashley*. *Social Hygiene*, VII-2, Apr. 1921. pp. 181-219. (M. S. C.)

**The "Home Boy" in Delaware.** A study of the conditions of the "home boy" in Delaware made by the Children's Bureau of that state during the year of 1920,

reveals a deplorable situation which should be handled speedily by child welfare legislation. This study made by the Bureau covered the cases of 294 children—orphans and dependents—placed in foster homes. About twenty of these are at the present time actually "bound out" under the old law sanctioning this procedure. In placing these 294 children, little effort has been made to locate them in desirable foster homes adapted to their needs and interests, and in consequence the majority of them are compelled to perform slavishly monotonous, hard manual labor on the farms, with a minimum of educational and recreational opportunities. The child labor law of Delaware specifically does not apply to children employed on farms or in domestic service. Up to 1917, Delaware had no state-wide compulsory attendance law, and since 1917 the law has required only 180 days a year up to fourteen years of age, and 100 days a year until the completion of grammar school. The Children's Bureau study is an arraignment of poor child placing, pointing out the abuses of the present system, the needs for improvement demanded, and the means of solving the problem through adequate supervision of child placing in the future.—*Paul L. Benjamin*. Survey, XLVI-3, April 16, 1921. pp. 81-82. (*Evangeline Hymer*)

## STATE AND INSTITUTION REPORTS

**California.** *Commission of Immigration and Housing*. Annual Report, 1920. R. Justin Miller, executive officer. San Francisco, Cal. pp. 28.

A brief report indicating the purpose and policy of the commission, and the activities of its various departments: complaint, labor camp sanitation, housing, and immigrant education. During the past six years the commission has issued thirty-seven publications dealing with various phases of its general problem. (W.W.C.)

**California.** *State Commission in Lunacy*. Twelfth Biennial Report, 1920. F. W. Hatch, general superintendent. Sacramento, California. pp. 94.

During the past two years 6,749 patients have been admitted to the six state hospitals in California. Among the 3,729 first admissions for this period, the percentages for the principal psychoses were as follows:

Manic depressive .....	47.5
Dementia praecox .....	23.0
Paresis .....	18.8
Senile .....	12.9
Alcoholic .....	7.0
Paranoid and paranoia .....	4.0
Involuntal .....	1.2
Psychoneurosis .....	0.5

Recent developments in care of insane are provision for occupational therapy, after-care, and out-patient clinics. Sonoma State Home for feeble-minded has 1394 inmates and 819 awaiting admission. Sterilization operations have been performed in 320 cases. Medical and psychological research are carried on in this home. It is stated by Dr. Hatch that there are 2303 mental defectives in five large counties in California, and although the state is now constructing Pacific Colony it will not have institutional accommodation for all its defectives. (W. W. C.)

**California.** *Commission of Immigration and Housing*. State Housing Manual 1919. San Francisco, Cal. pp. 119.



Contains the State tenement house, hotel and lodging house, and dwelling house acts; also illustrations, forms and tables suggestive and explanatory of the laws. (W. W. C.)

**Connecticut.** *Industrial School for Girls.* Biennial Report, 1920. Caroline deF. Penniman, superintendent. Middletown, Conn. pp. 47.

The superintendent reports that "No one thing we have accomplished has done so much to unify and classify our work for the girls" as the complete mental survey of every girl in the institution by Dr. Anderson. (For report of this survey see Jour. Delinq. Jan. 1921, pp. 271-283). The findings have been particularly valuable in classification for instruction, in indicating methods of general discipline and in determining final disposition of cases by parole or otherwise. The homes and family histories of every girl are thoroughly investigated and these supplementary data are of great help in understanding the cases. Next to character and reputation, good health is the girl's great asset and specialists are consulted whenever necessary to remedy defects. Student government is being developed and its success is indicated by the public opinion against misconduct which it fosters. Of 163 girls on parole from the school, 107 are making a good record, 24 a doubtful one, and 5 a poor one; 9 are in institutions receiving medical attention and 18 are not located. (W. W. C.)

**Idaho.** *Department of Public Welfare.* Biennial Report, 1920. F. L. Neil, commissioner. Boise, Idaho. pp. 46.

The management and control of the following institutions are assigned to the Department of Public Welfare of Idaho: Soldier's Home, State Sanitarium (for feeble-minded), Northern Idaho Sanitarium (for insane), Insane Asylum and Lava Hot Springs. The department also includes the Board of Health, with Bureau of Vital Statistics and of Child Hygiene, the Chemical and Bacteriological Laboratories and the Dairy, Food and Sanitary Director. The report includes statistical and financial tables and data concerning the above mentioned agencies, and indicates progress along the lines of consolidation and coordination of effort. Educational campaigns have been carried on for eradication of venereal disease and the promotion of child hygiene. (W. W. C.)

**Illinois.** *Chicago Home for Girls.* Annual Report, 1920. Miss Helen Steven, superintendent. Chicago, Ill. pp. 27.

This report consists principally of financial data and names of members of the administrative organization. The various functions of the Home are largely dealt with through committees. Fifty-three girls were received during the year.

(W. W. C.)

**Illinois.** *State Department of Public Welfare.* Parole Law. Accomplishments. Statistical Data, Papers and Addresses on its Provisions and its Administration. Springfield, Ill. 1921. pp. 98.

Included in this pamphlet are addresses, articles, and statistical data indicating the accomplishments of the Illinois parole law which is considered as among the best in the United States. The Division of Pardons and Paroles has an efficient organization and a more nearly adequate supervisory staff than found in any other state in the country. The pamphlet also contains the report of a crime survey of Illinois. (W. W. C.)

**Indiana.** *Boys' School.* Annual Report, 1918. Chas. A. McGonagle, superintendent. Plainfield, Ind. pp. 58.

A well-prepared report indicating an efficient organization and a definite understanding of individual cases. The Stanford revision of Binet-Simon intelligence tests are given by teachers in the Literary School, and assignments are made largely on basis of mental and pedagogical age. The intelligence quotients of boy, being committed are slightly higher than formerly. This is one of the few industrial schools maintaining some high school work through their Junior High Schools. The present organization contemplates whole-day sessions on a two-term basis instead of half-day sessions as heretofore. Under the merit system in operation, a boy may earn parole in a minimum of eighteen weeks. There were 625 boys on parole at end of fiscal year; they are under supervision of three parole agents. (W. W. C.)

**Maryland.** *House of Reformation for Colored Boys.* Biennial Report, 1919 John B. Pyles, superintendent. Cheltenham, Md. pp. 46.

The object of this institution is "to educate and reform colored boys who may be committed as street beggars, vagrants, incorrigible, criminal, or such as may be placed here by parents, guardians, or friends." Boys received are between the ages of ten and eighteen years, mostly from the city of Baltimore. The most important industry is the farm. It is stated that each boy is examined to determine his mental and moral condition, but it is not indicated that methods of clinical psychology are used. The general conduct of inmates is controlled through a merit system, by which they may become eligible for parole. Twenty-three per cent were paroled to service and the remainder to their homes. (W. W. C.)

**Massachusetts.** *Wrentham State School.* Thirteenth Annual Report. 1919. George L. Wallace, superintendent. Wrentham, Mass. pp. 21.

"The institutional care of the feeble-minded means much more than housing, it means the organizing and coordination of a world of educational and industrial activities by which the pupil may attain to his greatest development." Children, soon after admission are placed in as good physical condition as possible by the correction of remedial physical defects, and educational facilities are provided to meet the needs of all grades and classes. Among the important problems in caring for the feeble-minded are (1) arrangement for placement and supervision of patients in the community; (2) caring for girls whose mental defect is complicated with emotional irritability and temperamental disturbance; and (3) the care of defective delinquents, cases which disrupt the organization of the institution as it is not designed or constructed to meet the requirements of caring for them. (W. W. C.)

**New Hampshire.** *School for Feeble-Minded.* Biennial Report, 1920. Benjamin Ward Baker, superintendent. Laconia, N. H. pp. 23.

Of 141 new admissions to this school, the average physical age was 12 years and the average mental age 5 years. Children between ages of three and twenty-one, and women up to the age of forty-five are admitted. Among the brighter feeble-minded institutional inmates there are many who may wisely be given a trial outside the school with continuous and adequate supervision. With this end in view it is considered advisable that some official should have the duty of acting as guardian, make arrangements and adjustments, and keep a complete statistical record of every feeble-minded child. (W. W. C.)



**New Jersey.** *State Home for Boys.* Fifty-fourth Annual Report, 1918. C. H. Edmond, superintendent. Jamesburg, N. J. pp. 17.

This report indicates briefly the problem of the Home which has an average population of 568 boys. Need for the provision for care of "the large percentage of mentally deficient and subnormal boys now sent to this institution" is recognized. Investigation has shown that a "large percentage of the older boys placed on parole have done exceptionally well, but, unfortunately, many of the smaller boys have been returned as parole violators." (W. W. C.)

**New Jersey.** *The Seguin Physiological School.* Mrs. Elsie Mead Seguin, principal. Orange, N. J. pp. 59.

A private school for the education and training of "children who deviate from the normal." The children received are usually of borderline or feeble-minded intelligence and modern methods of diagnosis, care and education are in use. The school has facilities to care for twenty-five pupils and provides a staff of eleven teachers, five governesses, and administrative officers. The report is well illustrated and contains, by quotation and analysis, much data of interest to those engaged in the study and care of abnormal children. (W. W. C.)

**South Dakota.** *State School and Home for the Feeble-Minded.* Biennial report, 1920. J. K. Kutnewsky, superintendent. Redfield, S. D. pp. 16.

Recently completed new buildings have made possible a more satisfactory grading of inmates of this school which is developing a community where feeble-minded may live their lives and secure the greatest happiness. Among needs are suitable state provision for senile demented who are being committed as feeble-minded and the establishment of a farm colony for boys and men which will minimize the necessity of "unremitting vigilance . . . to ward off or stop the inevitable love affairs that spring up" through constant contact of both sexes due to close proximity of buildings. (W. W. C.)

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## NOTES AND COMMENT

A canvas of prisoners in Los Angeles County Jail by a Committee of the Municipal League of Los Angeles based on written statements of prisoners indicated the following conditions. Of 405 prisoners in jail on Apr. 1, 1921, 55, or 13.6 per cent had been tried and sentenced, while 350, or 86.4 per cent, were still unsentenced awaiting trial. A total of 279 prisoners—264 men and 15 women, answered the questions of the Municipal League. Fourteen had been in jail over four months, 9 having never asked for postponement of trial; 67 had been in jail between two and four months, 55 having never asked for postponement of trial; and 139 had been in jail less than two months, 133 having never asked for postponement of trial. If, without his consent, a prisoner is not brought to trial within sixty days he may demand to be released as being unlawfully detained. The League has asked for the appointment of additional judges to help clear the criminal calendar. Of the 279 cases, 260 men and 15 women favored working on an industrial farm both while awaiting trial and if sentenced. The age distribution of the prisoners is as follows: under 21 years, 86; between 21 and 30 years, 130; between 31 and 40, 44; over 40 years, 17 cases. (W. W. C.)

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# The Journal of Delinquency

Volume VI

September, 1921

Number 5

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## AN INDUSTRIAL INSTITUTE SURVEY

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During the month of December, 1920, the writer had the privilege of making a survey of the Wyoming Industrial Institute, a school for boys,—a survey which, because of the small number of inmates, was possibly a little more thorough than the usual investigation of the mental condition of the inmates of reformatories or institutions for delinquents. The results are presented somewhat in detail, in order to raise the question as to how far they may be typical of similar institutions in other states.

### THE INSTITUTE AND ITS INMATES

Wyoming has no Juvenile courts and no probation system; the law provides that in the case of minors, except for certain crimes, the court may parole at its discretion, requiring that the offender report to it at stated intervals; and in some of the larger towns a few public-spirited citizens have offered themselves as "big brothers," or unofficial probation officers, to juvenile offenders whom the court sees fit to parole. There are two distinct classes of boys in the institution—in the eyes of the law; those below 16 and those 16 or above to the age of 25. Those of the first group are "juvenile delinquents"; the second are "convicts." The procedure for commitment of the first group differs from that of the second in that a jury is not empanelled, but they are tried before the court. As a matter of fact not many boys above 21 are sentenced to the Institute.

The Institute occupies an ideal location, both from the standpoint of climate and natural resources. It is situated in the beautiful Big Horn Valley, where, shut in on both sides by high mountain ranges, the climate is dry and sunny and subject to no great extremes of temperature. A thousand acres of fine bottom land provide healthful outdoor labor for the boys, and together with a herd of registered cows make the institution practically self-supporting. The buildings, or building, for there is only one, aside from the barns and outbuild-

ings, is new, well planned and well built, though an idealist might find fault with it on the ground that it emphasises the custodial rather than the educational aspect,—a fault which it shares in common with the buildings in almost all other institutions of the same kind. The Institute opened in April of 1915; we have no record of the original number of inmates, but since that time 306 boys between the ages of 9 and 25 have been admitted. The largest number present at any one time was 63; at the time this investigation was made there were present but 38 boys, the smallest number at any one time since the Institute was opened.

These 38 ranged in age from 11 to 21 years; 19 were below 16, and 19 were 16 or above. On the outside their educational status had been from the second grade to high school junior rank, with the exception of two who had never gone to school at all; in the Institute they were classified from the third to the ninth grades inclusive. The younger boys attend school daily from 8 to 4 while the older boys have a two-hour session at night.

#### METHODS OF THE INVESTIGATION

Each group was first given the Haggerty Intelligence Examination, Delta 2, and tentatively classified according to their rating on it. On the blank page at the back they were asked to write the answers to the following questions:

1. What grade were you in outside?
2. How old were you when you first began to work?
3. Name all the different jobs you worked at outside.
4. What do you like to do best?
5. What do you think you can do best?
6. What trade or occupation do you want to work at when you get out?

In the case of the younger boys we added:

Do you think you are a good boy or a bad boy?

What do you think is your worst fault?

The boys were urged to answer these questions truthfully, not giving what other people said of them or what they thought the examiner would like, but what they themselves actually thought and felt. They proved invaluable in giving a line of approach to the boy, as well as from the standpoint of information. They set the boys to thinking and talking about themselves in relation to their life outside, and prepared them for questions and confidences when they came for their personal interview. They were told that the examination was for the purpose of helping them understand themselves and to find out for what vocation they were best fitted.



Each boy was then seen alone, for as long a period of time as his case seemed to require. In all but two instances the Stanford-Binet was given and in those two the Goddard-Binet was used, to save time, as these two cases were quite obviously much below 10 years mentally. In one case an association test was given, using the Kent-Rosanoff series of stimulus words; and in several instances with the younger boys the Knox Cube test, as standardized by Pintner, was employed. The test being concluded, we talked with the boy, eliciting his own story of his trouble, and probing as deeply as possible in a first interview. As a matter of fact, nearly every boy "opened up" in a surprising manner, seemed eager, indeed, to talk over his difficulties and to ask advice concerning his future course of conduct.

The superintendent and matron furnished additional information regarding the boy's attitude and his reactions in the Institution, and his home environment, where it was known. Many of the older boys were from other states and nothing was known of their families or previous history except what they themselves gave.

Table I classifies the boys according to the diagnoses made in the light of all the data available.

TABLE I. CLASSIFICATION OF BOYS.

Diagnosis	Number	Per cent
Feeble-minded.....	6.....	15.7
Borderline.....	8.....	21.0
Inferior normal.....	8.....	21.0
Average.....	6.....	15.7
Superior.....	2.....	5.2
Psychopathic personality.....	2.....	5.2
Insane.....	1.....	2.6
Problem cases.....	5.....	13.0

No one was diagnosed feeble-minded in whom the condition was not practically certain. Several of the borderline group would undoubtedly have been classed as feeble-minded a few years ago, but the army ratings have shown us that our concept of borderline mentality must be extended to take in many of those who were formerly, on insufficient evidence, often from mental tests alone, classed as feeble-minded.

Those classified as problem cases were all of normal level, but there were other considerations that made a further diagnosis impossible at the time. Some of these will be noted later. Several other cases were qualified by "psychopathic tendencies", "neurotic

constitution" or "poor physical condition." In two there were evidently some obscure physical factors at work. In short, this study serves to illustrate once more that mere mental testing and the classification and treatment of offenders by its results must necessarily fail in a goodly proportion of cases. The trouble lies too deep too be diagnosed by a statement of mental level.

#### TESTS

The Haggerty test served very well to give a preliminary rating, though in general it was too high. The borderline and inferior normal cases especially nearly all ranked as average or above on this scale. Below the mental age of 10 the results correlated more closely with the results on the Stanford. Group tests have their uses no doubt, but as yet they are unreliable for matters of diagnosis, though they may serve to point out the lower mentalities. As for the Stanford-Binet Scale the writer does not consider it by any means a finished instrument of perfection, nor is she among those who believe in the immutable and eternal properties of the I. Q. But after four years of careful study of the reactions of individuals of all types to a certain set of conditions, such as those imposed by any psychometric test, one becomes more or less adept in judging the quantity and quality of the mind she is dealing with, quite apart from any consideration of mental age or intelligence quotients. In this study mental levels as measured by the Stanford-Binet Scale qualified as often as not by statements of *function*, are confidently offered as being as nearly correct an estimate of the degree of mentality possessed by the subject as can be arrived at with our present methods of evaluating intelligence.

TABLE II. DATA ON FEEBLE-MINDED AND BORDERLINE CASES.

1. Age 21. Mental Age 6-6. Grade, None. *Diagnosis:* F M. *Remarks:* Straight defective. Institution case.
2. Age 19. Mental Age 9-1. Grade IV. *Diagnosis:* F M. *Remarks:* Probably too late for training. The amiable, utterly irresponsible type.
3. Age 20. Mental Age 9-9. Grade V. *Diagnosis:* F M. *Remarks:* Not necessarily an institution case.
4. Age 17. Mental Age 9-11. Grade, None. *Diagnosis:* F M. *Remarks:* In institution 5 years. Persistent thief. Verbalist type.
5. Age 13. Mental Age 7-10. Grade II. *Diagnosis:* F M. *Remarks:* Long career of delinquency. A likable fellow. Very irresponsible.
6. Age 15-3. Mental Age 9-9. Grade V. *Diagnosis:* F M. *Remarks:* Functions at a lower level than 9. Has been tried every place in institution. Can do nothing well.



7. Age 18. Mental Age 10-7. Grade IV. *Diagnosis:* Borderline. *Remarks:* A very simple soul, just a bewildered child. Doubt if he will ever be able to manage his affairs with ordinary prudence.
8. Age 21. Mental Age 10-7. Grade, None. *Diagnosis:* Borderline. *Remarks:* Rough and ready type, little mentality. Can use fairly well what he has.
9. Age 16. Mental Age 11. Grade IV. *Diagnosis:* Borderline. *Remarks:* Probably functioning at a feeble-minded level.
10. Age 21. Mental Age 11-2. Grade VI. *Diagnosis:* Borderline. *Remarks:* Good memory brings up M. A. Poor comprehension. Criminal tendencies.
11. Age 17. Mental Age 11-4. Grade VI. *Diagnosis:* Borderline. *Remarks:* Peculiar fellow, "can't use what brains he has." Probably irresponsible.
12. Age 11. Mental Age 7-4. Grade II. *Diagnosis:* Borderline. *Remarks:* Abilities irregular, indications that he is quite trainable. Psychopathic tendencies.
13. Age 12-3. Mental Age 9-6. Grade IV. *Diagnosis:* Borderline. *Remarks:* Rachitic stigmata, bad tonsils, very nervous, continually moving.
14. Age 14-6. Mental Age 9-11. Grade IV. *Diagnosis:* Borderline. *Remarks:* Childish little fellow, seems to have been actuated by the play spirit in his delinquencies.

This group of cases presents few problems, at least in the matter of diagnosis. It is the group we have long been familiar with, and which we meet in such overwhelming numbers in every reformatory or penal institution; here, it will be noted, it forms more than a third of the entire group—36.7 per cent. Eight of the group, or 21 per cent of the whole, have mentality enough, other things being equal, to enable them to make a living and otherwise hold their own in the level of society into which they were born. But the other things are so often not equal; temperamental difficulties, poor homes, wrong social environment, the stupidity of an educational system that plans everything for the fortunate few, have turned the balance, and instead of growing into law-abiding and self-supporting citizens, they have already failed in their adjustment to society, and many of them are definitely launched upon an anti-social career.

The next group is shown in Table III.

TABLE III. DATA ON THE INFERIOR NORMAL GROUP.

15. Age 21. Mental Age 11-7. Grade IX. *Diagnosis:* Inferior Normal. *Remarks:* Can use what intelligence he has to good advantage. Irregular life, worked at many jobs.
16. Age 16. Mental Age 12-3. Grade VIII. *Diagnosis:* Inferior Normal, criminal tendencies. *Remarks:* Has stolen since childhood. Hyper-sexed. In Institute tried to murder guard and get away. Has improved very much since committed.
17. Age 16. Mental Age 12-5. Grade VII. *Diagnosis:* Inferior Normal. *Remarks:* Parents separated, boy tossed back and forth between them. Has acquired gonorrhea and is terribly worried.

18. Age 12-7. Mental Age 9-10. Grade IV. *Diagnosis:* Inferior Normal. *Remarks:* Very small, nervous habits. Seems to have been the tool of older and brighter boys.
19. Age 12-10. Mental Age 10-3. Grade IV. *Diagnosis:* Inferior Normal. Neurotic. *Remarks:* Just began stealing lately. Childish, with an obsession concerning guns. (He stole guns.)
20. Age 12-10. Mental Age 10-4. Grade IV. *Diagnosis:* Inferior Normal. *Remarks:* A state ward, no people, has very little energy or initiative.
21. Age 14-6. Mental Age 11. Grade IV. *Diagnosis:* Inferior Normal. *Remarks:* Brother to No. 18. Understands the seriousness of his offense and thinks he is going straight when he gets out.
22. Age 15-10. Mental Age 12-1. Grade IV. *Diagnosis:* Inferior Normal. *Remarks:* Good memory, in other respects rather dull. Ordinarily good worker.

This is the group which we are beginning to recognize and attempt to provide for in the public schools; the "dull normal," who never by any chance are likely to embrace the opportunities provided for them in our great educational scheme. How can they, when their minds are never going to develop beyond that of the theoretical child in the 7th grade? They are the "world's hewers of wood and drawers of water", the farm hands, ditch diggers and coal-haulers, the rank and file of industry, without whom our present civilization could not exist. Quite capable of happy, useful lives, at work suited their abilities, how often they fail of adjustment and become instead, millstones about the neck of society, is well illustrated in our reformatory where 21 per cent of the entire group belong to this class.

We have already accounted for more than half—57.7 per cent—of all our cases, and have not yet reached average mentality. Table IV deals with it.

TABLE IV. DATA ON CASES OF AVERAGE MENTALITY.

23. Age 20. Mental Age 12-8. Grade VI. *Diagnosis:* Average intelligence. Dynamic personality. *Remarks:* Left school at 11 to help support family. No trouble in the institution and a good worker.
24. Age 13-6. Mental Age 11. Grade IV. *Diagnosis:* Probably average. Mental conflict. *Remarks:* Had been ill and not at his best. Parents separated. Mother has not had enough for them to live on. Is a good reader.
25. Age 12-8. Mental Age 11-6. Grade V. *Diagnosis:* Average. Nervous temperament. *Remarks:* Chief trouble mal-adjustment to school. Persistent truant. Poor home.
26. Age 13-2. Mental Age 12-9. Grade V. *Diagnosis:* Average. *Remarks:* Excellent verbal, poor visual memory. Poor environment, misdirected energies.
27. Age 14-4. Mental Age 14-1. Grade V. *Diagnosis:* Average. *Remarks:* An intelligent manner and discusses his problems like a man.
28. Age 15-8. Mental Age 12-8. Grade VII. *Diagnosis:* Average. Neurotic constitution. Goiter. *Remarks:* Stubborn spells. Lazy, slow, and dull in his work, but has developed a lot in the institution.



Here we have the same percentage—15.7—as of the feeble-minded, but as individuals this group presents more problems, comparatively speaking, than any we have discussed so far. No. 23, the only one of the older boys classified in this group, is a young man who can use to advantage what mentality he has. His father is an invalid, "laid up with the rheumatism every winter," and the mother is not strong enough to work. He and another brother have supported the family for years. A younger brother, 14, is working and going to night high school. Our subject enlisted at 16 and was in the army 28 months. He is an earnest, impulsive young fellow, who was easily taken in by an older man's hard luck story and shared his money with him, the man introducing him to a pool-hall where he won \$20.00, and they proceeded to get drunk, during which time the boy forged checks on the owner of the pool-hall, when he became sober and learned what he had done, he pleaded guilty and, "took his medicine." He feels that he has learned his lesson and is going straight in every way when he gets out. This boy certainly has the making of a good citizen in him, but he has had a poor start.

No. 24 comes from a broken home and is in poor physical condition. He has a furtive air, as if concealing something he fears the examiner will find out. His delinquencies began in stealing food. Has an unexpected dry humor. He made a poor showing on the Stanford, but other considerations seemed to justify the diagnosis of average mentality.

No. 25 is a nervous little fellow to whom school was a prison. He has an eye condition which no doubt added to his nervousness. Like most of these boys, his home was a poor one, the mother being ill and in hospitals a good part of the time, and the children left to shift for themselves while the father was at work.

No. 28 is suffering from a goiter. He is lazy, slow and dull in his work, but has stubborn spells and attacks of nervousness when he "shakes all over." Boy was inclined to deny the nervousness but admitted that when startled or frightened he could not control himself. His whole history is that of the neurotic. He is a hospital instead of a reformatory case.

#### THE SUPERIOR NORMAL GROUP

The two cases who are diagnosed as superior normal are so in every particular. No. 29 is a big, handsome fellow of 17, and scores 16-1 on the Stanford-Binet. He is the youngest of eleven children, and, as he freely admits, a spoiled boy. He left home at

14, after a disagreement with his father over what was to the boy a point of honor, as it involved "telling on" another person. The father, a well-to-do farmer in a neighboring state, forgave him long ago, but the boy could never make up his mind to go home until he had as much money and as good clothes as when he left. Once he was ready to go, but an illness took his savings. His offense consisted in raising a check with which he had just been paid off, after quitting his job because of what he thought his employers' unreasonableness. He is a high spirited fellow, a fine worker and thoroughly trustworthy in the institution. With his social background and his mentality he will probably find it easy to recover his footing, but it is nothing less than a social crime for a boy of his calibre to be allowed to grow up as a common laborer.

No. 30 is 14-9 and tests just 15 on the Stanford-Binet; he barely missed 11 months more credit. He is the oldest son, and has felt the family misfortunes keenly. The father is in debt, and the boy has worked at odd jobs since he was seven years old, earning money enough to provide his own clothes. He was ambitious to go to high school but could find no job in his home town last summer that promised money enough for his needs. As so often happens, he had gotten into bad company and the suggestion to "crook the money" seemed an easy way out. He and another boy broke into a hardware store and stole money and guns. Then they "jumped a freight" and went to Billings, Montana, but on attempting to dispose of the guns were arrested. This boy's superiority is quite evident in the institution where he is working hard to make a good record and to be able to enter the sophomore class in high school when he is discharged. His ambition is to become a mechanical draughtsman.

#### PROBLEM CASES

We have left eight cases, 21 per cent of the whole number, which present problems, either from the social or diagnostic standpoint. They are discussed Table V.

TABLE V. DATA ON PROBLEM CASES.

31. Age 18. Mental Age 10-10. Grade VIII. *Diagnosis:* Psychopathic Personality. Paranoid trends. *Remarks:* Always a problem, in House of Correction as a child; sullen stubborn, always thinks people against him.
32. Age 19. Mental Age 12-3. Grade VIII. *Diagnosis:* Psychopathic personality. *Remarks:* Very marked peculiarities of function. Thinks very slowly in-



deed and sometimes cannot think at all. Very childish in some ways; very stubborn spells.

33. Age 20. Mental Age 11-6. Grade IX. *Diagnosis:* Insane. *Remarks:* Abilities very irregular. Memory unreliable. Association test very psychopathic. Very peculiar, grandiose ideas. Syphilis twice.

34. Age 15-7. Mental Age 13-7. Grade IX. *Diagnosis:* Mental conflict. Psychopathic indications. *Remarks:* Reactions very much delayed; confused in his story and we do not get to the bottom of his trouble at all. A day dreamer.

35. Age 19. Mental Age 14-7. Grade IX. *Diagnosis:* Normal level, homosexual tendencies. *Remarks:* "Bright fellow but very peculiar." Effeminate manner, has no use for girls, talks of a boy friend, as self-conscious as a girl speaking of her lover.

36. Age 17. Mental Age 14-11. Grade VIII. *Diagnosis:* ? *Remarks:* Obvious peculiarities—ought to do better with brains he has. Very slow. Fairly good worker, hardly honest.

37. Age 14. Mental Age 13-1. Grade VII. *Diagnosis:* ? *Remarks:* Nervous temperament, much repressed and inhibited. No outlet for his love of adventure.

38. Age 12-3. Mental Age 13-11. Grade III. *Diagnosis:* Bright normal level. Hospital case. *Remarks:* Mal-nourished, tubercular build; irregular heart, dreadful odor from catarrh. A peculiar child, doesn't like play, sits around and reads.

The first three cases have been great problems in the institution; it goes without saying that they are not understood though they are recognized as peculiar, and that they are incapable of responding to reformatory treatment. No. 31 and No. 32 are of the type that is found so often in our penal institutions; though very different from each other, they present peculiarities of function which for want of a better term we call psychopathic. Neither one can be trusted in the community without supervision—or even perhaps with it. Society has yet to work out an adequate method of dealing with them. No. 33 is undoubtedly insane, but should have hospital observation to determine the further diagnosis. No. 34 is a good-looking mature young Jewish boy, from a good family in another state. As stated above, we did not get to the bottom of his trouble, but we did, finally, near the close of the interview, unearth a "gang", which his parents knew nothing about. This gang was composed of boys about the age of our subject, with the exception of the leader, who was a young man of 19. This young man had a little house in a remote part of the city, and lived there all by himself. This house was the gang's headquarters, but what they did there or what were the interests that bound them together the boy did not divulge. He is more or less unstable, and evidently struggling with something that is too much for him. If he is to be saved from a neurosis or psychosis, he must have help soon. No. 35 is a peculiar fellow, with a fairly

good mind, and with his abnormal sex tendencies not very well concealed. He has a "dandified air", with a certain superficial refinement, and is a glib talker. There are abundant indications of the "family erotic conflict"; his story as he himself tells it, of friction and misunderstanding with his father, of a deep attachment for his mother—"he always told her everything," is unmistakable. His offense—his first delinquency—was the reaction of a rather unresourceful mind not yet freed from its childish dependence upon the parents to a perplexing situation. Stranded in a little western town during the floods of last spring, his money gone, unable on account of the condition of the roads and weather to get out to the job that awaited him, he could think of nothing to do but to pick the pocket of a man in the hotel. Here again, if this boy is to be saved for a normal social career, something further than reformatory methods must be applied. No. 36 presents a different problem, not so easy to define. There are obvious peculiarities of attitude, one would expect him to grade higher. He uses an excellent vocabulary; but gets only 14 years credit for definitions. On one or two of the tests he loses credit because of his extreme slowness and yet he is not slow in everything. This is not his first offense, he burglarized a house in Iowa, was apprehended, and placed on probation. He has few friends, his delinquencies have been committed alone, at no one's suggestion. In the institution he is a fairly good worker, but "hardly honest." Another case for careful analysis before reconstructive measures can be applied with any assurance of success. No. 37 is another case for analysis; a manly attractive little fellow, who was too obviously nervous to do himself justice on the tests. He diagnoses his own trouble as due to his being "too adventurous." He too belonged to a gang, "The Silent Adventurers," composed of boys of good families, like his own. The Boy Scouts were too tame for them; they wanted to trap in the mountains and live by themselves. They had a hut "built like the Indians," and hiding places where they "cached" the things they brought from home, look-outs in trees—all the things dear to the hearts of bright, adventure-loving boys. They became foolish and wanted more fun. Our boy and one other dwelt in imagination upon a journey to the hills until it was all planned out, and before they knew it (they didn't really mean to go) the plan put itself into execution and they started out one day at recess. After various rather sorry adventures the sheriff found them and brought them ignominiously back. Further questioning brings out the fact



that he had run away before, and that for a number of years he has been disobeying his parents, and indulging in small misdemeanors of which they knew nothing. It is evident that he has been a difficult child, and that his parents have not understood him. There are distinct signs of nervousness. He is the type of child who needs most intelligent physical care and an understanding of and sympathy with his temperamental difficulties. No. 38, our last case, grades considerably above age, though his abilities are irregular. The outstanding feature however is his physical condition; he needs hospital observation and a strict hygienic regime. He is a chronic runaway, though in all probability it is the reaction of a bright mind against intolerable conditions, as his home environment is reported very poor. He too was a member of a gang, and got into court for stealing from stores to supply the cave that was their hiding-place. He does not like to play, is very averse to physical exertion; sits and watches the others, or reads.

#### INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

It is easy enough to quarrel with our diagnostic groups, but leaving aside for the moment the question of function, and grouping the first three in our last table with the borderline or inferior normal, where their mental level would place them, we have very nearly two-thirds, (a fraction less than 66 per cent) below average mentality. Of the 15.7 per cent who are definitely feeble-minded, all but one are, in the judgment of the examiner, institution cases. No. 2 who is 19 years old with a mental age of 9, with an equable, cheerful disposition, might have been able to get along in the community if he had been recognized in childhood and properly trained; and it possible that No. 5, who is now 13, might be socialized if training were continued through adolescence. Reformatory methods can, of course, avail nothing with them. Nor is the borderline group much more promising; most of its numbers are already fixed in a career of delinquency, and barring some psychological miracle, are destined to be at war with society the remainder of their lives. Here again there is hope for the younger boys in training. The inferior normal group is composed largely of younger boys, 5 out of the 8 being below 15; for them it is not too late, if they could be placed in the proper environment, their natural aptitudes consulted, and suitable training given. So far the Institute has not been able to provide such training. The experience in farm work which the boys are getting is very good, but it is the

only kind of manual work as yet attempted. The school system has recently been reorganized, and is excellent for its kind, but since its curriculum follows very closely that of the Worland public schools, the emphasis is necessarily upon book-work and academic training. The law creating the institution provides for the employment of the inmates in "agriculture, horticulture, or mechanical labor," and is broad enough to admit of training in almost any form of manual work. Logically the next step is the installation of training courses in shop work or some of the mechanical arts.

Of the remaining one-third little may be said in this connection beyond the fact that their lack of mentality cannot be blamed for their social failure. We must look farther for the causes of their delinquency, which are almost as many as there are cases, but can perhaps be summed up in the one word, mal-adjustment. Poor environment, unintelligent or unsympathetic parents, our too-rigid school system, temperamental difficulties, poor physical condition, unstable nervous systems; cases for the specialist of one sort or another, the physician, the social case worker, the psychologist or psychiatrist.

Since we are discussing a reformatory institution, it is pertinent to inquire what percentage of the group offers probable material for reformation. We can say at once that under existing conditions it is very, very small. The superintendent, a man of unusual insight and long experience, considers that only one of the older group—No. 29, diagnosed superior normal—can be relied upon to make good outside. Of the younger group, Nos. 27, 30 and 37 are considered very hopeful; for various reasons all the others are doubtful at least. From the results of the examination and all the information available we are quite inclined to agree with him. This is but four out of 38, little more than one-tenth of the entire group!

How far the results of this study would hold good of similar institutions in other states can only be guessed at, since estimates of mentality and diagnostic groups have usually been based upon group surveys or the application of Binet tests alone, instead of upon thorough going individual study of each inmate. Since Wyoming is largely a rural state, conditions are necessarily somewhat different from those obtaining in older and more thickly populated communities; but the offenses for which the boys were committed were practically the same as we find in other institutions, stealing and vagrancy being by far the largest categories; crimes against the person were perhaps somewhat fewer. There are far fewer boys of foreign birth or parentage



than are found in most sections of the country, and no colored boys. Taking the facts into consideration, we are perhaps justified in inferring that this group is at least equal if not somewhat superior to similar groups in the larger institutions; thus we may look upon it as a cross-section of what we would find in the latter.

The lessons to be learned from a study such as this are patent enough, and they are by no means new; the necessity of thorough-going surveys of our institutions for youthful delinquents and the reclassification of their inmates upon the basis of the findings; the transfer of cases who belong in other institutions by some board which shall have the right of transfer; the introduction of training in other forms of manual work besides farming, and a lessened emphasis upon book-work except for the few who can really profit by it; in connection with this a recognition of the place that the boy will probably occupy in society, and the effort to fit him for it, by training him in the means of livelihood and in habits of thrift and industry; the recognition of the psychopath and the neurotic as medico-psychiatric cases, and the entire futility of attempting to deal with them as delinquents—all these things have been urged many times, and must be urged again and yet again before we may hope to see them generally accepted and acted upon. But above all things, to the writer at least, looms the necessity for recognizing these cases while they are in the predelinquent stage, for some organized effort to find children who, for any reason, are likely to become delinquent, and the employment of any means available to prevent their development of a delinquent or criminal career. Now that we have the means of recognizing and sorting out these children surely we are little less than criminal ourselves if we do not insist, in season and out of season, upon its being done.

#### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The Wyoming Industrial Institute offered the writer the opportunity of making a careful individual study of each inmate, supplemented by information from the officers of the institution regarding the boy's attitude and reactions in the institution, his previous history and his home environment. It is believed that the 38 boys thus studied constitute a fairly representative cross-section of similar larger institutions in other states. The results show:

1. Practically two-thirds of the inmates are below average intelligence, according to the army ratings.

2. Of the remaining one-third, 38 per cent, although of the average mental level or above, are suffering from abnormalities of function so marked that they could only be designated, "problem cases in need of further study before an adequate diagnosis is possible."

3. Fifteen per cent are definitely feeble-minded, 21 per cent borderline mentalities, most of whom are already definitely launched on an anti-social career.

4. Neurotic constitutions and psychopathic personalities appear at all levels, but are much more frequent among the brighter boys.

5. Only 10.4 per cent in the estimation of the superintendent and the judgment of the examiner, are really promising material for reformation.

If the results of this study can be taken as approximately true of similar institutions in other states, it seems to make still more emphatic the demand for a complete revision of our methods of dealing with youthful delinquents. It is unwise to hold the feeble-minded responsible and to punish him for his misdeeds; he is entitled to the care and protection of society, not its vengeance. Much the same is true of the borderline mentality; he is in large measure only what we make him. The psychopathic or neurotic child is too often father to the criminalistic or perverted man, and because he was not discovered and properly treated in childhood. In short, only when all children have the benefit of the medical and psychological service now extended to a few, can we hope to turn our reformatories into what Pestalozzi, their great-hearted founder dreamed that they would be, training schools for children who are handicapped by birth or environment, but who have the ability to profit from training and who shall come forth from them equipped to take their places in the world as self-sustaining and useful members of society.



## THE NECESSITY FOR STERILIZATION

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There has been within the last twenty-five years a great social awakening to the fact of racial degeneracy. The public mind is beginning to ask why there are so many insane, epileptic, feeble-minded, criminals and paupers. An International Eugenic Congress was held at the University of London, England, from July 24 to July 30, 1912. This notable gathering took place eight years after Sir Francis Galton had given to the world his outline of the science of eugenics. It has been estimated by an eminent authority that at the present time there are in the United States;

42 institutions for the feeble-minded,  
115 schools for the deaf and blind,  
350 hospitals for the insane,  
1,200 refuge homes,  
1,300 jails and prisons,  
1,500 hospitals,  
2,500 almhouses,  
23,000 juvenile delinquents in institutions,  
100,000 blind,  
100,000 criminals,  
100,000 deaf and dumb,  
100,000 paupers in almhouses,  
300,000 insane and feeble-minded.

The same authority estimates that two-thirds of these defective individuals are parents of defective children. These figures are in themselves appalling.

It has been, and is, the purpose of eugenics to acquaint society with the great prevalence of racial defectiveness. It has been the claim of the eugenists that this vast amount of degeneracy is due largely to hereditary transmission, and the careful study of clinical facts has borne out this contention. It is at once admitted that all this disease, defect and crime is not due to heredity. Vicious environment plays an important part in the production of degeneracy.

Man is a creature of two great forces—heredity and environment.

They cannot be separated nor intelligently considered apart. It is meant by heredity that man has passed on to him certain potentialities and diseases which environment through nurture and education may greatly develop. Good heredity can accomplish but little without the influence of environment which may shape and modify inborn tendencies; but environment can never produce mental capacities. Man may be compared to a bullet which has behind it a certain charge of powder. The direction of this bullet, when fired, may in some degree be determined, but the bullet will never go beyond the range of power of the original charge of powder. A horse tied to a tether is at liberty to move within the limits of the rope that holds him, but he cannot go further. So it is with man. These two homely analogies illustrate the force of heredity.

Punnet, in his book of Mendelism, frequently points out the relationship between heredity and environment.

Education is to man what manure is to the pea. The educated are in themselves the better for it, but their experiences will alter not one jot the irrevocable nature of their offspring. Permanent progress is a question of breeding rather than of pedagogics; a matter of gametes, not of training. As our knowledge of heredity clears and the mists of superstition are dispelled, there grows upon us with ever-increasing and relentless force the conviction that the creature is not made but born.

A superficial veneer of culture brought about by training and environment cannot long hide organic defect. The degenerate, the feeble-minded and the imbecile will remain as they are, no matter how much we do for them. This is the experience of all superintendents of institutions for feeble-minded.

After a long, careful study of feeble-mindedness, Goddard has come to the conclusion that no less than two-thirds of all feeble-mindedness is due to heredity. The experiences and studies of numerous other investigators have led them to entirely agree with him in his conclusion. Various family histories have been traced and compiled, and they show, beyond a question of a doubt, the fact that mental defectiveness is transmitted from parent to offspring. Among the most striking of these degenerate genealogical trees which have been charted are the Juke Family, by Dugdale; Kallikak Family, by Goddard; Zero Family, by Jörger, and the Tribe of Ishmael, by McCullough. Doctor Bahr, of Pennsylvania, forcefully states:

The family histories collated in the institutions and hospitals of our land form in themselves a library of tragedies which would convince the most skeptical of the



magnitude of race suicide, increasing with each generation. . . . In my individual study of four thousand and fifty cases of imbecility I find two thousand, six hundred and fifty-one, or 65.45 per cent, caused by malign heredities; and of these one thousand and thirty, or 25.43 per cent, are due to a direct inheritance of idiocy, and two hundred and eighty, or 6.91 per cent, to insanity.

It has been agreed by the most prominent alienists that many forms of nervous and mental diseases are hereditary—among these disorders are chorea, manic-depressive insanity, dementia praecox, epilepsy and feeble-mindedness. It has also been shown that a neuropathic constitution which renders individuals susceptible to acute mental diseases, is also an inheritable condition. The truth of these two statements has been so emphatically established that there is no need of further discussion just here to elucidate this matter. Since it has been demonstrated that physical qualities and degeneracy are transmitted from parent to offspring, biologists and physicians have sought to formulate theories which would explain the mechanism of heredity. Various hypotheses have been advanced to explain this phenomenon, and most prominent among them are the following:

Spencer's Physiological Units,  
Darwin's Pangenesis,  
Galton's Stirp Theory,  
Weismann's Germ Plasm,  
Lamarck's Theory of Inherited Characteristics,  
Mendelian Hypothesis.

None of these theories need be mentioned in this article except those of Mendel. In fact most of them are no longer supported by biologists. It will be well to speak of the last one, however, since the Mendelian theory comes nearest to explaining the heredity of man than any other.

As a result of the experimental study of variation and heredity, Mendel found that on crossing the tall and dwarf varieties of plants the next generation consists of only tall plants. Let us, therefore, call tall 'dominant' (designated by D) and dwarf 'recessive' (designated by R). When these cross-bred plants fertilize themselves in the next generation there result tall and dwarf plants in the proportion of approximately three tall to one dwarf. The recessive dwarfs, when self-fertilized, produce only dwarfs for any number of generations—they are pure recessives. The dominants (tall), when self-fertilized, produce one-third pure dominants (which on self-fertilization produce only dominants for any number of generations) and two-thirds cross-bred dominants which are impure or hybrids. In other words, there are one-fourth pure dominant, two-fourths impure dominant or hybrid, and one-fourth pure recessive. The hybrids, when self-fertilized, again produce pure dominant, impure dominant or hybrid, and pure recessive in the ratio of one, two and one. This is represented diagrammatically in Fig. 1.

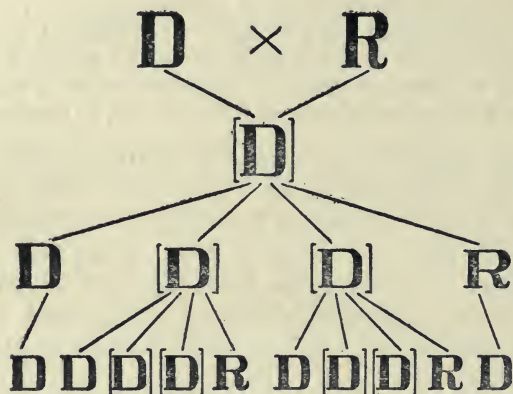


Fig. 1. Mendelian inheritance in peas. D, tall plant of pure strain; (D), tall plant in which dwarf character is latent. (After Punnet.)

The facts of variation and heredity have been proven for all forms of life other than man. In the case of plants and animals new races can be built up to order. Man can create and establish new and valuable varieties. Wheat can now be made to order. A variety of wheat has been produced, combining some valuable trait from several varieties. Special kinds of cotton, of corn, and of sheep can be obtained—pure varieties breeding true. So it is throughout the plant and lower animal kingdoms. Do these laws apply to man?

Although we cannot experiment with man or definitely control his action in any respect, especially in the matter of mating, we can observe experiments made at random by nature on man. We can keep records of our observation; tabulate and measure the results. Thus the knowledge of human heredity is largely of the statistical sort.

In what human characters has Mendelian inheritance already been proven? The most clearly established Mendelian character in man is eye-color, in which brown is dominant over blue, owing to the presence or absence of pigment on the interior surface of the iris. We may also enumerate the following, which seem to follow Mendelian lines: color-blindness, hair color and curliness, albinism, brachydactylisms, syndactylism, polydactylism, keratosis, haemophilia, congenital stationary night blindness, certain forms of deaf-mutism and cataract, and Huntington's chorea. Pathological traits seem in the main to be dominant. Retinitis pigmentosa, albinism and alkaptonuria seem to be recessive. Haemophilia is peculiarly 'sex limited,' being dominant in the male and recessive in the female, and is, therefore, transmitted through the female, but affects the male.

In accordance with the general principle of Mendelian hypothesis, it would be quite possible to foretell the character of the progeny of certain matings. The accompanying chart indicates the various unions and their offspring. The squares represent males; the circle



females; a white square or circle represents a normal individual; a solid black circle or square represents a defective individual; a half black square or circle indicates a neuropathic individual capable of transmitting neuropathic tendencies. (See Fig. 2).

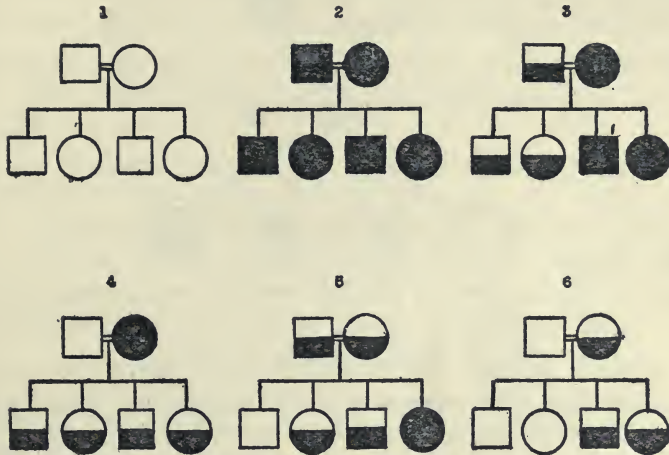


Fig. 2. Mendelian inheritance chart.

- I. Both parents normal, all the children will be normal.
- II. Both parents defective, all the children will be defective.
- III. One parent being normal, but with a neuropathic taint from one grandparent and the other parent defective, half of the children will be apparently normal, but capable of transmitting the neuropathic constitution to their offspring, and half will be neuropathic.
- IV. One parent being normal and of pure normal ancestry, and the other parent neuropathic, all of the children will be apparently normal but capable of transmitting the neuropathic constitution to their offspring.
- V. Both parents being normal, but each with a neuropathic taint from one grandparent, one-fourth of the children will be normal and not capable of transmitting the neuropathic constitution to their offspring; one-half will be apparently normal but capable of transmitting the neuropathic constitution to their offspring, and the remaining one-fourth will be defective.
- VI. One parent being normal and of pure normal ancestry, and the other parent apparently normal but with a neuropathic taint from one grandparent, half of the children will be normal and incapable of transmitting the neuropathic constitution to their offspring, and one-half will be apparently normal but capable of transmitting the neuropathic constitution to their offspring.

The statistical tables of our state institutions show that there is a

strikingly close relationship between these Mendelian tables and the actual findings in heredity.

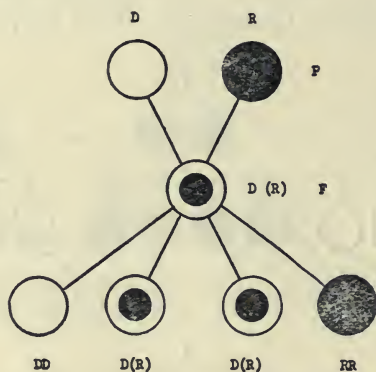


Fig. 3. Mendelism (After Thomson).

The whole mass of statistical evidence which has been gathered from the records of our hospitals for the insane, schools for the feeble-minded, colonies for the epileptic, and other eleemosynary institutions conclusively proves that mental defectiveness is hereditary and that tendencies to defectiveness are likewise inherited. There need be no quibbling about the ultra-scientific theories of heredity and racial poisons which affect the germ plasm, or about the differences between congenital heredity and direct heredity. Syphilitic parents always bear syphilitic children as the Wasserman test general and neurological examination will show and never has it been known for two mentally defective individuals to become the parents of a normal child. The data that I have been able to gather after a personal examination of more than five thousand prisoners has shown that the antecedents of 44 per cent of these convicts were psychopathic individuals who were either insane, feeble-minded, epileptic, criminal or suffered with organic or functional diseases of the nervous system. It is still a disputed question as to whether crime is directly inherited or not. Criminologists are about evenly divided on this question, though the burden of the proof is with those who say that it is. But it can be said with scientific exactness that crime is indirectly inherited, because mental defectiveness is inherited, and this condition produces a susceptibility which leads to criminal acts. The individuals who are unstable because of defective nervous systems find it ex-



ceedingly difficult to adjust themselves to the normal order of human society. They are even unfitted to acquire the education which will enable them to live without crime, because of their constitutional inferiority. They soon gravitate to the lowest levels of society; they are excluded from the realms of legitimate industry and sooner or later they inevitably fall into the practice of crime or mendicancy.

The individuals whose cases are reported were observed by the author while Superintendent of the Indiana Hospital for Insane Criminals:

*Case 1.* Prisoner, white male, thirty-two years of age when admitted to the Indiana State Prison, February 18, 1912. Prisoner comes of a neuropathic family; father was a demented epileptic; his mother suffered from Huntington's chorea; one paternal aunt and sister have chorea; the prisoner himself is feeble-minded, measuring seven years by the Binet-Simon scale of intelligence tests.

Prisoner has a long criminal record; has been in trouble several times on account of his murderous and brutal tendencies; he has served three jail sentences for assault and battery and has paid two fines for the same charge.

This feeble-minded individual brutally beat his demented father to death with a club because the latter had displeased him. He had assaulted his father many times before he succeeded in killing him.

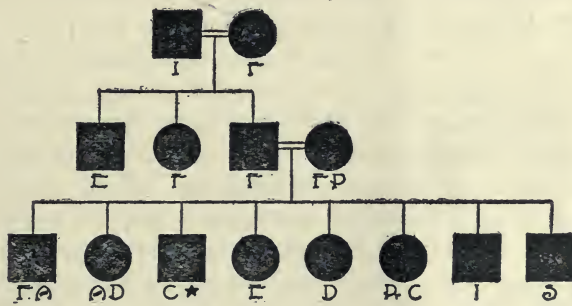


Fig. 4. Family tree showing transmission of mental defectiveness from grandparents to grandchildren. One grandchild now a patient in the Indiana Hospital for Insane Criminals committed murder as did his father. Key to symbols: Squares denote males and circles females; I, insane; F, feeble-minded; E, epileptic; F P, feeble-minded prostitute; F A, feeble-minded alcoholic; A D, alcoholic degenerate; C\*, insane criminals; D, degenerate; Pr C, pauper criminal; S, stillborn.

He has been in constant conflict with the discipline since coming to prison. He fails utterly to appreciate the enormity of his crime; he is extremely egotistical and feels he has been grossly insulted because he has been sentenced to prison for a term of two to twenty-one years.

He is lacking in reason and judgment; his conversation is silly and childish; occasionally he exhibits transient unsystematized delusions of persecution. He is a permanent custodial case and had he been placed in an institution for the feeble-minded youth when within the age limit for admission to that institution, much crime and needless expenditure of money could have been averted.

*Case 2.* Prisoner, white male, forty years of age when admitted to the Indiana State Prison, convicted of statutory rape on a fourteen-year-old female child.

This prisoner's mentality falls within the moron group; his family history is bad; the mother died of cancer; father died of organic dementia; his paternal grandmother was insane and died in an institution; one brother also died in a hospital for the insane.

His crime was merely the expression of mental defectiveness; he has been guilty of this overt act several times; but had heretofore escaped arrest; he is intensely erotic in conversation, and he has no appreciation of the fact that he has committed any moral offense whatsoever. He justifies his behavior by saying that he paid his victim money, candies and articles of small value and she had no reason whatever to be dissatisfied, and that the "nosy people" should have minded their own business, instead of his.

This individual will be a constant source of danger when released from prison on account of his mental defect and sexual tendencies.

*Case 3.* Prisoner, white male, age eighteen when admitted to the Indiana Hospital for the Insane Criminals. He was found by the court "guilty of grand larceny, but insane." This man has been a continual source of trouble and annoyance in the community from which he came. He is an habitual thief and on several occasions he made attacks on small female children; his mental age is seven years; he presents all the mental and physical stigmata of degeneration.

*Case 4.* Prisoner, white male, thirty-two years of age when admitted to the Indiana State Prison, November 22, 1914, conviction of grand larceny. This is his fourth conviction; twice before he has served time for burglary and the definite number of jail sentences could not be ascertained, but the number is no less than eight.



He has also been an inmate of a hospital for the insane. His mental age by the Binet-Simon scale is but eight years; his mother was insane at the time of her death; other family history unobtainable; he presents all the stigmata of degeneration; has a marked defect in speech; his conversation is filled with profanity and obscenity and he displays homosexual tendencies.

*Case 5.* Prisoner, white male, twenty-one years of age when admitted to the Indiana State Prison, convicted of murder. He had previously been found guilty of larceny, and was serving sentence at the state reformatory on this charge when he stabbed a fellow prisoner to death with the idea in mind that he would be transferred to the Indiana State Prison, where he would be permitted to use tobacco. Whenever asked to do so, he very freely discusses his crime without the least evidence of remorse or shame.

By Binet-Simon tests he was found to be a high grade moron; his reason, judgment and behavior show marked mental weakness, and he is absolutely "incapable of competing on equal terms with his normal fellows or managing himself or his affairs with ordinary prudence." He is in constant conflict with the discipline in the psychopathic ward where he is detained, and in this department the rules correspond to those of the hospital for the insane. He is quarrelsome and irritable, and occasionally makes pretended attempts on his life merely to create sympathy.

In this instance the characteristic mental poverty of the imbecile permitted brutal and murderous tendencies to act that the taste for tobacco might be satisfied.

It is at once apparent to the student of social and criminological affairs that if we are ever to get rid of criminals we must cease breeding mental defectives who become criminals. There are three remedies which society has at her command to use, which we may classify under the term negative eugenic; these measure are: restriction of marriage, segregation and sterilization of the defectives, dependents and delinquents during the child-bearing period. The first two will not be discussed, but the third remedy will be considered.

Sterilization is not by any means a modern idea or practice; this measure was in force in ancient times among the Hebrews and the Egyptians. It was practiced many years ago among the inhabitants of the South Sea Islands and among the American Indians. The

insane, idiotic, epileptic, leprous, or those afflicted with transmissible disease were sterilized in Scotland according to Boetius, who said: "He was instantly gelded, and if a woman, she was kept from all intercourse with men."

Castration was first advocated in America nearly fifty years ago by Dr. Gideon Lincecum before the Texas State Legislature as a substitute for the death penalty. His suggestion was not very enthusiastically received by this deliberative body. The ridicule which marked its reception then has given place, as the years have gone by, to serious study and investigation by eugenists. At last, when the public had been sufficiently enlightened and our legislators somewhat educated, a law was enacted in the state of Indiana in 1907 through the efforts of Doctor Sharp for the sterilization of the confirmed criminals, idiots, imbeciles and rapists. Since that time other states have followed suit and among them is Iowa, New Jersey, California, Washington, Connecticut, New York, Utah, Nebraska, and several other states. Bills authorizing sterilization have been introduced into other state legislatures, but they have failed to pass.<sup>1</sup>

"Indiana provides, as a board of examiners who shall decide upon whom to operate, two expert physicians and superintendents and boards of managers of institutions where such persons are confined.

"The operation may be applied to confirmed criminals, idiots, imbeciles and rapists.

"Several hundred operations have been done in this state.

"Iowa provides, as a board of examiners who shall decide upon whom to operate, the managing officer of the state institution where such persons are confined, the members of the state board of parole, and the surgical consultant of such institution.

"The operation may be applied to habitual criminals, idiots, feeble-minded, imbeciles, drunkards, drug fiends, epileptics and syphilitics. The operation applies to both men and women.

"New Jersey provides that the governor shall, with the advice of the senate, appoint a surgeon and neurologist, each of recognized ability, for a five-year period, who, with the commission of charities, and the superintendent of the institution shall constitute a board of examiners which shall decide upon whom to operate.

"The operation may be applied to confirmed criminals, feeble-

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<sup>1</sup>A summary of these sterilization laws was published in a recent issue of the *Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology*.



minded, epileptics and other defectives. Only those who cannot recover and where procreation is not advisable may be operated upon and only after five days' notice by the board to the court of common pleas in the county. It is lawful for any competent surgeon to operate.

"California provides that the superintendent of a state hospital for insane, the superintendent of a home for feeble-minded, or the resident physician of the state prison, when in their opinion it would be beneficial and conducive to the benefit of the physical, mental and moral condition of any inmate of said hospitals, home, or state prison, to be asexualized, shall call general superintendent of state hospitals and the secretary of the state board of health, and if two of the three examiners favor the operation, it may be performed on inmate, patient or convict.

"The sterilization laws for the most part are not as carefully and thoroughly written as they should be. Too many of them contain statements about heredity that are not yet proven; others have stated that sterilization was for the purpose of punishment. These defects in the law have been a source of criticism and have been the reason for their repeal in several instances. If the state legislature would enact statutes overcoming these mentioned defects, the propaganda against sterilization would in a large measure cease.

Recognizing the need for such a law the Eugenics Record Office, has drafted one to serve as a model<sup>2</sup>.

The policy of sterilization has had many warm advocates and supporters, and among them have been individuals who have commanded the public confidence. It has also had many enemies and opponents who were loud in their denunciation of this humane measure. The following individuals have supported this theory of sterilization: Doctor Barr, Chief Physician, Pennsylvania Training School for Feeble-minded Children, of Elwyn, Pa., says:

Let asexualization be once legalized, not as a penalty for crime, but as a remedial measure preventing crime and tending to future comfort and happiness of the defective; let the practice become common for young children immediately on being adjudged defective, by competent authority properly appointed, and the public mind will accept it as an effective means of race preservation. It would come to be regarded, just as quarantine, a simple protection against ill.

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2. Laughlin, H. H.: *Eugenical Sterilization in the United States. Social Hygiene*, VI-4, Oct. 1920.

Dr. Charles V. Carrington, of Virginia, remarks as follows:

Our juvenile courts, reformatories, probation officers, societies for aid to the discharged convicts—all are doing splendid work. Prevention is practically their motto, and is the motto of every person interested in the handling of criminals. After ten years of investigation as prison surgeon, and during that time seeing and treating thousands of our criminals, black and white, I am unreservedly of the opinion that sterilization of our habitual criminals is a proper measure.

The Committee of Criminal Law Reform of the National Prison Association says in its report of 1907:

A further measure calculated to minimize the cause of the race problem will be found in statutes providing that in prosecutions for rape, assault with intent, incest and sodomy, the jury trying the issue shall have the power to specify sterilization of the defendant, in addition to the penalties for such crimes now prescribed.

Huxley is quoted to have said of sterilization the following:

We are sorry for you; we will do our best for you (and in so doing we elevate ourselves, since mercy blesses him that gives and him that takes), but we deny you the right to parenthood. You may live but you must not propagate.

Quite a few objections have been offered against sterilization, chiefly by lawyers, clergymen and by some social workers and physicians. Many of the arguments of the attorneys have been facetious and merely a play on words to display their casuistic abilities. Medicine has ever been on the frontiers of science, an eternal proselyter for reform and progress; the law has always lurked behind in the rear-guard of yesterday, finally reaching the milestones of scientific advance, which have been set by medical science. The first objection raised by the legal profession is that sterilization laws are unconstitutional, and they interfere with personal rights. This has always been their shibboleth; the same hue and cry was raised when the medical profession first sought to establish quarantine for contagious diseases. Some attorneys still fight vaccination in our courts even though they have been secretly vaccinated. When infected and poisonous milk was emptied into the sewers instead of allowing unscrupulous milk dealers to sell it to infant children, the lawyers brought the health board of a certain large city into the courts because the health officers had interfered with "personal rights." The social workers, however, have some encouragement to persist in their efforts to better humanity for the majority of lawyers have at last awakened to the fact that the just-mentioned measures were rightful and legitimate. Some lawyers have insisted that certain defective individuals have the right to pollute and curse the race merely that the "rights" of the individual may be maintained. They have insisted that the



incurable syphilitic must be permitted to infuse his vile poisons into an unpolluted family merely because he can purchase a marriage license certificate. They have advanced another argument that sterilization is a "cruel and unusual punishment." It is to be admitted that some of the sterilization laws were so framed as to lead to this erroneous view. Sterilization was never intended to be a punishment; it was devised for social relief and for the welfare of generations yet unborn. It is an effort to decrease the number of dependents, defectives and delinquents of future society, and our profound legal brothers should take a broad view of the question instead of seeking for a hair-splitting technicality to render such laws unconstitutional. They will be doing humanity a great service if they see that the sterilization laws are so framed as to be constitutional; they might in the spirit of progress aid in perfecting these laws. Legs are amputated, appendices and gallstones are removed from suffering state wards, and we should have the same moral right to do some social surgery for the good of society.

Laws have been framed by attorneys to put individuals into prison; to hang and electrocute certain others; there seems to be no constitutional barrier to these proceedings, and yet I am sure some persons would regard them as interference with personal rights.

Sterilization has been condemned by many theologians, and this is not at all strange, for the clergy has ever been slow to accept the advancements of science, no matter whether the field be in physics, biology, medicine or sociology. This may be due to extreme conservatism or to the fancied interference that science might have with certain religious dogmas. The church once forbade dissection by physicians and medical students, and yet at the same time it tore the cringing human flesh with instruments of torture to wring from a mortal a recantation or a confession of faith. When Harvey discovered that the blood circulated in the body he was promptly excommunicated from the English church. When Galileo discovered that the world revolved around the sun, he was thrown into a prison by the church. It is quite remarkable, however, that this is the case in matters of heredity, since the Bible contains many references to heredity. In the Pentateuch we find the statement that "the sins of the fathers shall be visited on the children even to the third and fourth generations." Jacob displayed his knowledge of heredity in the breeding of his cattle and sheep when he swindled his father-in-law, Laban, out of the herds. Jacob knew enough about the practical

workings of heredity to select the dominant male animals and left the recessive males to Laban, and the Scripture records that Jacob became very rich because of his wily dealing in cattle. Christ said in His Sermon on the Mount "By their fruits ye shall know them. Do men gather grapes from thorns or figs from thistles?" One of the fundamentals of the Christian religion is the doctrine of the inheritance of original sin. "Through Adam all men have sinned." Likewise in the Scriptures we find that men have been made eunuchs for the kingdom of heaven's sake; and for excellent reasons some individuals should be made eunuchs for the sake of humanity.

Bishop Sumner, of Oregon, takes the scientific view of eugenics, and in fact, has preached it doctrines to the public, and he has in this measure atoned for the shortcomings of the clergy in the matter of racial improvement. Some day it will be understood that eugenics is not opposed to religion, and in course of time as humanity advances it will become a part of the religion of the future. Some sociologists have been unduly alarmed about sterilization, fearing that it would increase sexual promiscuity and thereby spread venereal diseases and remove the fear of impregnation. This danger is more apparent than real. The individuals for whom sterilization laws are enacted are not in the least restrained from their sexual intercourse because of a fear of venereal disease or illegitimate offspring. This question does not worry them the slightest.

Some social workers have objected to sterilization on the ground that the individuals for whom the sterilization laws are written can be segregated, and that emasculation would therefore be unnecessary. Dr. Goddard has answered this argument in a very efficient manner as follows:

If the individuals that are selected for the operation are never to go out into the world, the operation will be of no very great benefit to society. It will remove a little of the necessary precaution in the institutions. That is a doubtful advantage. But it is true that many institutions for the feeble-minded have inmates that could go to their homes and be well cared for, their lack of ability to earn a living would be made up by others in the family, and the state would be relieved of the burden. If they were safe from the danger of procreation, this would be a proper procedure. It is also true that our institutions for the insane are so crowded that many cases that are known to be chronic and incurable, and are clearly hereditary, are often allowed to go home during their periods of quietness, and while away from the institution they become parents of children who inherit their weakness. If the operation were applied to these people, it would save a large percentage of defective inheritance. In the institutions for the feeble-minded, if these people above



alluded to could be sent home, others could take their places, could be trained to work, sterilized and again sent to their homes to be fairly comfortable in those homes. In this way, in the course of time, considerable help could be offered to the solution of this problem, and the burden of caring for so many people for their entire lives in colonies would be, to a certain extent, reduced.

We thus see that in the present status of the problem neither one of these plans will solve it at once, but since both are good and both can contribute somewhat to the solution, the only logical conclusion is that we must use both methods to the fullest extent possible. As we have attempted briefly to show, and as any one can discover for himself if he will give a little time to investigating the conditions, the situation is fast becoming intolerable, and we must seize upon every method that is suggested and offers any probability of helping in the solution of this problem. In other words, it is not a question of segregation or sterilization, but segregation and sterilization.

There are some physicians and biologists who would attempt to appear both profoundly learned and ultra-scientific, spending considerable time and effort refuting the self-evident and clinical facts of evil heredity which are to be found at every turn. It is sometimes wondered whether these objectors would be willing to submit to a practical application of their own theories to test the sincerity of their statements; would they themselves marry into defective families or deliberately permit one of their offspring to marry a feeble-minded or syphilitic individual to show the truth or falsity of their contentions? Some objection may be offered to this plan of testing their beliefs on the grounds that it is extreme and unreasonable, but such is not the case. Fournier, the world's greatest syphilographer, deliberately vaccinated himself with syphilis that he might study this fearful disease more accurately than he could otherwise. And no one will dispute that he rendered the world an invaluable service. Carrol and Reed sacrificed their lives in demonstrating to the world that the mosquito (*Stegomyia Calopus*) carries the yellow fever germ, and by their supreme sacrifices the world has been freed from the scourge of yellow fever. And as we consider these acts of service to humanity one can in all sincerity and candor ask the objectors to sterilization to demonstrate the accuracy of their teachings if they really believe them.

So much is known at least by the physicians that little need be said upon the methods of emasculation. There are three possible methods of sterilization: (1) Vasectomy or oophorectomy, (2) castration, (3) by the use of the Röntgen rays. The operation of vasectomy is a simple one. The skin of the scrotum, and the cord may be anaesthetized by novocain or other narcotic drug. A small incis-

ion is made in the scrotum at the site of the epididymis; the vas deferens is isolated, divided and about one-eighth of one inch is cut off. The distal end is ligated; the end nearest the testicle is left patulous, so that the testicular secretion flowing from it may be absorbed by the body economy, thereby preventing any disorder of the body metabolism. The contents of the scrotal sac are then returned and the small skin incision is closed with a single stitch.

In the female the operation is more difficult, as it requires an abdominal or vaginal incision. The fallopian tubes are divided, and the ends nearest the uterus are ligated. The ovarian end of the tube is left open and this permits the absorption of the ovarian secretion which undoubtedly plays a most important part in the body nutrition.

With either of these operations performed the emasculated individual can take his place in society, exercise his sexual power, but he is absolutely incapable of ever reproducing his kind. If this operation of sterilization is performed before puberty, there is likely to be no interference with the normal bodily development, as has been shown by the experience of Dr. Sharp, who says:

I selected a four-weeks-old male calf, did a double vasectomy and observed development. There was no impairment of the development of the genitalia. He assumed the normal characteristics, such as the thick neck, curly face and deep basso voice and from all outward appearances was a normal specimen of his sex. Likewise, I took a female of the same species and after I severed the oviduct, I observed that she developed sexually to the point of pubescence as any other of her variety do. She menstruated regularly and had all the outward appearances of a normal female which had not borne offspring.

I have also severed the oviduct in an epileptic female child of eleven years of age. At fourteen she menstruated and has continued to menstruate every twenty-eight days and has full chest development, is feminine in her ways and has no outward appearance of being unsexed. It has been my misfortune that I have not had the opportunity to operate upon a male child prior to the age of puberty, but there is no doubt in my mind that he would go through to complete sexual development.

In this brief review of the data concerning heredity and sterilization the chief points of interest may be summarized in the following conclusions:

First. Insanity, epilepsy and feeble-mindedness are transmissible diseases and defects in about three-fourths of all cases.

Second. Insanity, epilepsy, feeble-mindedness and other forms of psychopathy render the individual so afflicted very susceptible to criminal tendencies.



Third. Approximately two-thirds of all criminals are in some way mentally defective and are the offspring of mentally defective parents.

Fourth. The tendency to crime is indirectly inherited, because mental defect is directly and indirectly inherited.

Fifth. The practice of sterilization upon the incurable insane, epileptic, feeble-minded and confirmed mentally defective criminals would reduce crime to a very large degree by stopping the propagation of these classes.

Sixth. Sterilization is not a predatory measure; on the other hand, it is one of the best social treatments which society has at her command for the betterment of the human race. The sterilization laws should be framed so as to come within the scope of constitutional rights and the practice should be restricted and guarded in every particular, and always performed after careful investigation by a competent surgeon.

No matter what benefits may be derived from the sterilization of the mental defective, the public in general and the legal profession in particular are not quite ready to pass and enforce asexualization laws. The traditions of the past relative to heredity and personal rights cannot be instantly swept aside. The public must be educated, the laws of heredity and the principles of eugenics must become widely disseminated and understood, and it falls to the physicians and sociologists to be the public teachers since no others are so capable or competent to give the instruction. The practice of medicine is inseparably interwoven with biology, sociology, morality and eugenics. The surgeons of penal institutions have a splendid opportunity to assist in the development of the science of criminalistics. And when the truth of criminology and heredity are once understood, the opponents of sterilization will no longer look upon it as a predatory measure.

Some day society will learn that it is criminal to permit the feeble-minded, the incurable insane, the epileptic, the syphilitic and other verereally diseased persons to propagate disease, torture, misery and untimely death.

Some day man will seek to regenerate man, since the physical and mental salvation of the human race lies within his own hands. When

he learns that the laws of nature are the laws of God; "the sins of the fathers shall be visited even unto the third and fourth generation," he will then cease to apply the needless and fruitless methods of reformation to cure the social degeneracy which could have largely been prevented.



# The Journal of Delinquency

Published bi-monthly by The California Bureau  
of Juvenile Research  
WHITTIER, CALIFORNIA

Entered as second-class matter March 27, 1916 at the Post Office at Whittier, California, under the Act of August 24, 1912. Acceptance for mailing at special rate of postage provided for in Section 1103, Act of October 3, 1917, authorized August 3, 1918.

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## THE INTELLIGENCE OF WYOMING DELINQUENTS

In this issue Dr. Winifred Richmond gives the results of tests made of a group of boys in a Wyoming industrial school. Although the group comprised but 38 cases, the findings are significant. More than 36 per cent were found to be feeble-minded or of borderline intelligence. Several more were in the psychopathic and "problem" groups. Only ten per cent of the boys examined indicated a promising future. The mental ages were obtained by the use of the Stanford-Binet tests. Each test was supplemented with information from sources available at the institution. Dr. Richmond has evidently applied the tests carefully, and has endeavored to be conservative in her diagnoses. There is one passage, however, on which the editor cannot withhold comment. Dr. Richmond says:

How far the results of this study would hold good of similar institutions in other states can only be guessed at, since estimates of mentality and diagnostic groups have usually been based upon group surveys or the application of the Binet tests alone, instead of upon a thorough-going individual study of each inmate.

That this study does not occupy the place in the literature of recent delinquency surveys which the foregoing statement is intended to give it, will be evident to most of the readers of this Journal.

(J.H.W.)

## THE JOURNAL OF APPLIED SOCIOLOGY

We are in receipt of the initial number of the *Journal of Applied Sociology*, published by the Southern California Sociological Society, under the editorship of Dr. Emory S. Bogardus. The new periodical seeks to encourage research and wider discussion in the field of applied sociology, as distinguished by Lester F. Ward from pure sociology and social reform. Articles by Frank W. Blackmar on *A Justifiable Individualism*, Eugene C. Branson on *Educational Social Work in North Carolina*, George S. Sumner on *Problems of Self-Government at the George Junior Republic*, and D. F. McLaughlin on *Outdoor Relief Work in Los Angeles County* indicate the type of discussion which the new Journal is intended to promote. Our best wishes are hereby extended to Dr. Bogardus and the society which has thus entered the field of publication. (J.H.W.)

## QUOTATIONS

DISCUSSIONS OF DELINQUENCY AT THE 1921 CONFERENCE  
OF SOCIAL WORK, AT MILWAUKEE

In the *Survey* for July 16, 1921, Martha P. Falconer reports the section on delinquency and correction of the Milwaukee Conference. Following is a condensed statement:

The motif of the delinquency section was brought out by Carrie Weaver Smith, superintendent of the Texas State Training School for Girls, in a speech on the elimination of reformatories. She urged the use of better trained persons in juvenile work, particularly in the courts. Dr. William Healy presented methods for studying a case of delinquency. Dr. William A. Evans emphasized the necessity of hospitalization and quarantine. Dr. V. H. Parker gave a description of protective social measures of the Interdepartmental Social Hygiene Board. Dr. Herman Adler discussed a survey of penal and correctional institutions of Illinois. Dr. Orlando F. Lewis discussed organization and administration needs. Professor J. L. Gillin spoke on the effect of prohibition on crime. The main promise of the future in the delinquency field is in the contributions of the psychiatrists to diagnosis and treatment. The public school as the great preventive and curative agency was discussed by Dr. Helen T. Woolley, Dr. Elizabeth Woods, and Miss Anna Pratt.

A special report on probation, parole, the policewoman, and the protective worker, was presented by Henrietta Additon of the Social



Hygiene Board. The report was unanimously adopted. Ruth Topping and George E. Worthington gave a joint paper of a study of the morals courts in Chicago, Philadelphia and Boston, recommending the abolition of all courts of criminal jurisdiction except one, with plenary powers in the establishment of ample courts and with authority to develop the social side, including laboratory diagnosis and treatment.

## PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

Baldwin, Bird T.: *The Physical Growth of Children from Birth to Maturity*. Iowa City: University of Iowa Studies in Child Welfare, Vol. 1, No. 1. 1921. pp. 411. Price \$3.00.

This is probably the most thorough and comprehensive study ever published on the physical growth of children. Extending and supplementing his previous monograph and special studies, Dr. Baldwin here presents a detailed account of his own work, brought up to date, and summarizes practically all other published investigations in this field. He deals with (1) instruments and methods, (2) the growth of infants, (3) the physical growth of school children, (4) growth correlations in boys and girls, (5) anatomical age, (6) historical orientation, (7) comparative growth tables, and (8) an annotated bibliography. Useful tables of English equivalents of metric units are also given. The annotated bibliography of 911 titles is alone a valuable contribution. The study is almost too modest in its freedom from generalization. The author's hope that it may stimulate more intensive studies should be realized. In itself it might become "an international basis for scientific work in child welfare." (J.H.W.)

Barr, Martin W., and Maloney, E. F.: *Types of Mental Defectives*. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston's Son & Co. 1920. pp. 179. Price \$3.00.

Dedicated affectionately to "Albertus, Case D, the great misunderstood," the authors here present many interesting and detailed cases of mental defectives with whom they have come in contact. The text deals with all grades of idiocy and imbecility, as well as moral imbeciles, *idiots savants*, epileptics, mongolians, backward children, and special physical types. The section regarding the so-called "moral imbeciles" is especially interesting. The book is profusely illustrated with actual photographs, and some cases are traced through several age periods. A useful book for both psychologists and physicians. (J.H.W.)

Bloomfield, Meyer: *Management and Men*. New York: Century Co., 1919. pp. 591. Price \$3.50.

The name of Bloomfield is indelibly written in the field of vocational guidance. This work is the result of a special study of employment conditions in Great Britain, with special reference to the elements which become a part of industrial problems the world over. The appendices, totaling 375 pages, constitute a mine of valuable source material. Students of the employment problem and all others who hope for social stability from satisfactory labor conditions will find this book interesting and helpful. (J.H.W.)

Bonger, William Adrian: *Criminality and Economic Conditions*. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1916. pp. 706. Price \$6.50.

This volume is one of the Modern Criminal Science series translated from the French and published under the auspices of the American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology. Part I contains a "critical exposition of the literature dealing with the relation between criminality and economic conditions," with chapters presenting a resume of the thought of various European writers and "schools" concerning the interrelation of these factors. Part II contains five chapters on the present economic system and its consequences and seven chapters outlining the kinds of crimes, indicating by statistical data, quotations from other studies, and discussion, the apparent relation of the organization of society (which is largely based on our present economic system) to the etiology of crime. Dr. Bonger admits individual differences and that certain persons are more likely to become criminals than others; however, criminal sociology is not so much interested in "Who becomes criminal?" as "How does it happen that there are crimes?" He believes that "the part played by economic conditions in criminality is preponderant, even decisive," that we can combat it by changing those conditions, and that a society based upon "community of the means of production" should be the trend of social development, eliminating poverty, cupidity, and egoism, and providing education, culture, a redistribution of property "to each according to his needs," social and economic independence of women, and a strong feeling of altruism. Admitting the relative importance of the economic system in any social environment, we must remember that an analysis of individual differences among criminals and a detailed study of hereditary and developmental traits are our principal means of indicating the changes in social organization that are desirable for the prevention of crime. (W.W.C.)

Bridges, James Winfred: *An Outline of Abnormal Psychology*. Columbus: R. G. Adams & Co., 1919. pp. 126.

A comprehensive list of the various definitions, classifications and groupings of pathological mental conditions, together with a selected bibliography for further study. Part I deals with abnormal mental phenomena, Part II with the mental syndromes or symptom-complexes of insanity, Part III with the borderline diseases, psychoneuroses and epilepsies. The outline should serve well its purpose as a guide for students of abnormal psychology and for social service who need a general survey of the field but have not the time for extended reading. (J.M.)

Cabot, Richard C.: *A Layman's Handbook of Medicine. With Special Reference to Social Workers*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1916. pp. 528. Price \$3.00.

In this book the author has succeeded in bringing to the reader much of that reassurance and alleviation of anxiety that the right sort of a physician carries with him into the sick room. Dr. Cabot here as in all his writings proves himself to be a keen and constructive psychologist. His descriptions of symptoms and disease conditions are frank and accurate, he admits candidly the limitations of our present day medical knowledge but everywhere he manages to keep the mind of his reader directed toward health rather than disease so that the most morbid and suggestible of persons could pore over the pages without feeling that he is a victim of the various ills described. This wholesomeness and balance give the book a value far beyond that of the ordinary medical compendium. It should be on the shelves of every library where such a work is needed and is particularly well suited for a home reference book. (J.M.)



**Central Association for the Care of the Mentally Defective and the National Special Schools Union:** *Conference on Mental Deficiency.* London: November, 1920. pp. 135. Price 2 | -.

This conference, including more than twelve hundred representatives of different organizations, special schools, and government departments, was presided over by Mr. Leslie Scott. In attendance were some of the leading English experts on mental deficiency. The discussion centered chiefly on institution provision for defectives and on medical and psychological work in this field. (J.H.W.)

**Davis, Philip:** *Immigration and Americanization. Selected Readings.* Boston: Ginn & Co., 1920. pp. 770. Price \$4.00.

This reference book compiled under the editorship of Mr. Davis contains selections from books and other publications of about forty persons among whom are many of the leading authorities in the fields related to immigration and Americanization. Part one contains readings concerning the history, causes, characteristics, and effects of immigration and concerning immigration legislation. Part two presents references relating to Americanization under the five general headings Americanization policies and programs, distribution, education, naturalization and citizenship, and Americanism. The careful selection of references and the diversified viewpoints of the writers presents an excellent means of obtaining a view of the interrelated social problems. (W.W.C.)

**Dickerson, Roy E.:** *Some Suggestive Problems in the Americanization of Mexicans.* Reprinted from *Pedagogical Seminary*, XXVI-3, Sept. 1919. pp. 288-297.

The estimated Mexican population of the United States in 1917 was 343,000. Dickerson suggests that the Mexican population of the Southwest alone may be twice that much. It is believed that probably nine-tenths of the Mexicans in the United States live in Arizona, Texas, California, and New Mexico. This study was undertaken at Tucson, having a population of 25,000, of which about 50 per cent are Mexicans. About 62 per cent of the young men in the community are of Mexican birth, the proportion exceeding the proportion of American boys in every age group. In El Paso about 75 per cent of the school population is Mexican. In 1918, every sixth immigrant to the United States was Mexican. Mexican boys are usually retarded in school; they drop out as soon as possible; few of them go beyond the sixth grade. The author thinks the Mexican boys have respect for authority, and that they are more easily controlled than American boys. He is optimistic concerning their Americanization. (J.H.W.)

**Downing, Elliot R.:** *The Third and Fourth Generation.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1919. pp. 164. Price \$1.00.

A simple but thoroughly scientific discussion of the principal facts of heredity and eugenics. Among the topics of discussion are the significance of parentage, the visible basis of heredity, and the practical problem of human heredity. The importance of eugenics as a factor in the public welfare is well brought out. The author has successfully presented these subjects in a non-technical manner. The book is deserving of a wide circulation. (J.H.W.)

**Drummond, Margaret:** *Five Years Old or Thereabouts.* New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1920. pp. 180. Price \$1.80.

Writing in a style which should readily appeal to teachers and mothers of young children, this author has set forth some of the significant recent developments in educational psychology. The chapters on *mental age*, the *unconscious mind*, and the *nursery school* are especially valuable. The observations and experiments in which Miss Drummond has been associated with her "unconscious collaborator" give the book a unique and practical setting. (J.H.W.)

**Dunlap, Knight:** *Mysticism, Freudianism and Scientific Psychology*. St. Louis: C. V. Mosby Co., 1920. pp. 173. Price \$1.50.

Strongly assailing the theories of Freud and his followers, Professor Dunlap in this book classifies the concept of the "subconscious mind" as analagous to the mystic concepts of the ancients; a seeking for a "third kind of knowledge;" it is "the hoary wooden horse perfidiously packed with the ancient enemy of science." After giving an account of the development of several forms of mysticism, the author gives a remarkably clear and fair presentation of the chief elements of the Freudian theory. He then undertakes to prove it to be in itself a form of mysticism; to be unscientific, and unworthy of the dignity which modern experimental psychology has attained. While one cannot help feeling that the author is prejudiced by his own unconscious aversion to the subject matter of psychoanalysis, his earnest plea for sound scientific procedure in all branches of psychology is well made. (J.H.W.)

**Dunlap, Knight:** *Personal Beauty and Racial Betterment*. St. Louis: C. V. Mosby Co., 1920. pp. 95. Price \$1.00.

In part one the significance of beauty is discussed and its characteristics enumerated and evaluated. In part two under the general topic of the conversation of beauty, is presented a careful analysis of present day problems relating to the continuance of the race. Civilization seems to be disturbing the racial balance by permitting rapid increase of the least fit while encouraging the limitation of the stronger strains. To combat this there must be made a conscious effort on the part of society, through the bettering of laws and economic conditions but more through education and publicity, to change the proportional rate of increase so that the level of the race may be raised rather than lowered. The author believes that personal beauty in the comprehensive physical and mental interpretation that he gives it is a paramount force in motivating the conservation of the more fit. In support of this he offers stimulating and suggestive ideas. (J.M.)

**Edwards, A. S.:** *The Fundamental Principles of Learning and Study*. Baltimore: Warwick & York, 1920. pp. 239. Price \$1.80.

In this book the emphasis is laid upon the habit theory as the fundamental working principle in education and in the development of character. The term habit is used to include habitudes, dispositions, attitudes and interest. The author has brought together the findings of James, Tichener, Angell, Thorndike, and many other authorities in the field of habit and memory and has presented his subject with clearness and thoroughness as far as he has gone. In his discussion of basic principles one misses any reference to recent experiments in the field of the emotions. The work of Cannon, Crile, Bechterew, Pawlow and others would seem to have an important bearing upon motives and beginnings in learning and to offer much that would be suggestive and stimulating to the student. Within its



limitations, however, the book will be found useful to students and teachers and is worthy of a place in the pedagogical library. (J.M.)

Fosdick, Raymond B.: *American Police Systems*. New York: Century Co., 1920. pp. 408.

As a companion volume to *European Police Systems*, Mr. Fosdick has presented an historical summary and analysis of American police organizations and methods. The book is based upon a personal study of seventy-two larger cities in the United States with chapters on the American problem, development, present status, and special problems of police control, the organization of departments, the prevention of crime, and conclusions. In comparison with European systems, those of America present an unfavorable contrast; in comparison with conditions in this country during past decades, there are many evidences of improvement. The author believes that unification of administrative authority, freedom from political influence, and adoption of business methods are necessary steps to taken be in crime prevention. Whatever form of organization develops, its basic idea will be: "not a conventional system of patrol or a systematized procedure for making arrests—valuable as these activities may be—but an unceasing fight, in cooperation with all the active forces of society, to keep criminals from committing crime and people from becoming criminals." (W. W. C.)

Goddard, Henry Herbert: *Human Efficiency and Levels of Intelligence*. Princeton: University Press, 1920. pp. 128. Price \$1.50.

The author believes that although no one would have us accept intelligence as the only determiner of human conduct, it is the one psychological factor that we are at present equipped to evaluate and we should readjust society to better accord with what we know of mental levels. To have each person working at his own level would make for happiness and contentment. He contends that democracy is possible even where we admit great inequalities in the native capacities of people and believes that the masses can be trusted to choose the most intelligent individuals to govern them if they are made to feel that these individuals have the true interests of the people at heart. The work is a clear and non-technical discussion of a subject that should be thoroughly pondered by all leaders, teachers and directors of men. It is, as well, an optimistic antidote for the fear of an "intellectual aristocracy" sometimes encountered where the measurement of intelligence and its logical deductions for democracy are under discussion. (J.M.)

Gulick, Luther Halsey: *A Philosophy of Play*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1920. pp. 291.

The author believes that men and peoples are better revealed by their play, the use they make of their leisure, than by any other means. In play one sees the action of great desires using the intellect as a tool to accomplish ends rather than as a guide to the ends to be accomplished. He feels too that the individual is more an agent of life than a directing force. Certain great desires seem to engulf him, directing his will and purposes to their own ends with but slight regard to the benefit of the individual himself. These desires come in great waves growing farther apart as the individual grows older. Each wave raises the level of psychic range and power of the individual and makes the next one possible. Life, self-activity, is an end in itself. Play is not preparation for living, it is living itself.

Desire is a greater word than duty. To sacrifice and serve from a sense of duty is far less fine than to do so from desire. Play is not something less than work—it is a difference in mental attitude. Really great work is play. The greatest workers are those who are impelled by desire that enlists the whole personality in the pursuit of the coveted end. Life at its best is playing the game. The pursuit is the end in itself. Satisfaction is not found in the ends attained but in the effort of attaining. Growth in personality is shown by the end we desire. The book radiates a wholesome and stimulating philosophy which if thoroughly understood and carried further could be used to analyze and throw a reassuring light upon many of the big and almost terrifying problems of our present age. One closes it with a feeling of refreshment and renewal. (J.M.)

Gulick, Walter V.: *Mental Diseases*. St. Louis: C. V. Mosby Co., 1918. pp. 142.

This book comprises 142 pages. The subject matter is treated in seventeen short chapters. It would be of very little worth to anyone without professional training in psychiatry, because it is written in a purely technical style, for those who have taken up the practice of psychiatry. For this reason it will not prove of any value to medical students, for whom, because of its brevity, it was probably intended. For someone who is proficient in neuropsychiatry the book is of no value, but is merely a compilation of scattered notes. It at once betrays the fact that the author is a neuropsychiatrist and familiar with his special branch of medicine. There are many gaps in the paragraphs, in the continuity of thought, which can be filled in by persons familiar with mental diseases, but which could not be bridged by the student beginning the study of abnormal psychology. There is an urgent need for a manual of neuropsychiatry written in a logical, sequential, succinct style, which would serve the purposes of the medical student and the general practitioner, but the book under review does not meet this requirement. (Paul E. Bowers)

Hollingworth, H. L.: *The Psychology of Functional Neuroses*. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1920. pp. 259.

Two distinct projects are undertaken in this book. First: the presentation of the concept of reintegration "which is to be conceived as that type of process in which part of a complex stimulus provokes the complete reaction that was previously made to the complex stimulus as a whole." This concept is illustrated by its application to clinical pictures and is thoroughly discussed in its bearings upon the whole problem of the understanding and treatment of the psychoneurotic personality. Second: the presentation of confirmatory data drawn from the results of the examinations of over a thousand psychoneurotic army men. The signing of the armistice during the progress of the investigation gave a unique opportunity for observation of the therapeutic effects of the coming of peace and for the making of quantitative measures of these effects upon the various diagnostic groups. The last chapter outlines the functions of a psychological service in a neuropsychiatric hospital. Coming to his big task from the field of normal psychology with emphasis upon its vocational and industrial aspects, Professor Hollingworth brings a freshness of viewpoint and a directness of attack that enable him to throw new light upon some problems and to open up many interesting avenues for further research. (J.M.)



**Hood, William R.:** *State Laws Relating to Education Enacted in 1918 and 1919.* Washington: U. S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin 1921, No. 30. pp. 231.

This bulletin contains (pp. 208-216) a valuable digest of laws passed during 1918 and 1919 relative to delinquent and dependent children. Among the tendencies noted are: (1) the consolidation of institution administrative groups; (2) significant changes in institution names; (3) extension of probation systems; (4) more attention to the girl problem; (5) the establishment of additional institutions; (6) providing for transfers between institutions; and (7) general improvement of institutions. (J.H.W.)

**Key, Wilhelmine E.:** *Heredity and Social Fitness. A Study of Differential Matings in a Pennsylvania Family.* Washington: Carnegie Institution, 1920. pp. 102.

This study, which might have been called "The Rufer Family" is comparable with the studies of the Jukes, Kallikaks, Nams, Pineys, and the Dwellers in the Vale of Siddem. Beginning with four patients at the institution for feeble-minded at Polk, Pennsylvania, Dr. Key has traced the family back to the latter part of the eighteenth century, the earliest members having been German immigrants. From this single source were traced five lines of descent, totaling 1,822 individuals. The study reveals much social degeneracy, including feeble-mindedness, pauperism, and immorality. Special significance may be attached to this study from the standpoint of immigration. The tendency to freely admit foreigners without regard to their hereditary characteristics, on the theory that the children are sure to grow up to be good Americans, is shown to be fallacious. This work is well reported, and meets the high standards of previous publications in the series. It is an important contribution to the study of human inheritance. (J.H.W.)

**Kirkpatrick, E. A.:** *Imagination and its Place in Education.* Boston: Ginn & Co., 1920. pp. 214. Price \$1.48.

The author presents in a concrete and entertaining manner the relation of the imagination to other intellectual processes. Part one outlines the subject in its general aspects. Part two discusses the imaginative life of children, its early development, the various phases through which it passes and the uses and dangers involved. Part three gives many helpful suggestions for relating school subjects and the imagination, showing how the dynamic power of the image may be used to vitalize all school work. The material used has been carefully collected and the book will prove valuable to anyone who is teaching, training or studying children and young people. (J.M.)

**Laird, Donald A.:** *Connotations as a Factor in the Mental Health of the Community.* Reprinted from American Journal of Psychiatry, I-1, July, 1921. pp. 68.

An interesting discussion, based on experimental data, concerning the respective merits, from the standpoint of psychological effect, of the terms asylum, colony infirmary, sanitarium, hospital, psychopathic, lunatic, insane, etc., as used in designating institutions for the treatment of mental patients. That there have been marked changes in the use of connotations during recent years suggests the practical importance of the problem. This study introduces to us the new *American Journal of Psychiatry* to which our best wishes are extended. (J.H.W.)

La Rue, Daniel Wolford: *Psychology for Teachers*. Chicago: American Book Co., 1920. pp. 316.

A new volume in the American Education Series under the general editorship of George D. Strayer. The first part of this book gives a simple general view of mind and behavior or, as the author puts it, "an airplane view of the entire science." The second part goes into more detail, with special emphasis upon such facts as will be of special help to teachers. There are excellent chapters on types of behavior, individual differences, variations of personality and mental hygiene. Exercises at the beginning and suggestions for further study at the end of each chapter, together with a brief list of references, add to its usefulness as a text. Discussions are direct, clear and vigorous, simple enough to be understood by inexperienced students but thoroughgoing and fundamental enough to satisfy the teacher faced with puzzling problems and in need of illumination and wider understanding. (J.M.)

Lowie, Robert H.: *Primitive Society*. New York: Boni & Liveright, 1920. pp. 463. Price \$3.00.

The need of a reference and text book presenting recent anthropological evidence concerning primitive social organization is met by this volume. Dr. Lowie, associate curator of anthropology at the American Museum of Natural History, presents data which are the basis of American scholars' position refuting the assumed laws of social evolution popularized by Morgan's school. The book contains much of interest to students in the related fields of sociology, history, economics, psychology, and comparative jurisprudence. (W.W.C.)

Martin, Lillian J.: *Mental Hygiene*. Baltimore: Warwick & York, 1920. pp. 89. Price \$1.40.

In this little book of which the subtitle is "Two Years' Experience of a Clinical Psychologist," Dr. Martin, for many years a student and teacher of psychology, tells the interesting story of her work after leaving the university. It will prove profitable reading to those who contemplate embarking on the sea of private psychological work. Dr. Martin's former students will be glad to find recorded in this form some of the methods and expressions associated with her interesting personality. (J.H.W.)

National Committee for Mental Hygiene: *Statistical Manual for the Use of Institutions for the Feeble-minded*. New York, 1921. pp. 40.

A committee from the American Association for the study of the Feeble-minded, represented by W. E. Fernald, Haynes, Kuhlmann, Mogridge, and Murdoch, acting jointly with Salmon, Anderson, Furbush, and Pollock, representing the National Committee for Mental Hygiene, have produced this pamphlet, which is intended to suggest a standardized procedure for the classification and reporting of statistical data issued by institutions for the feeble-minded. The manual as it is may well be used as a standard for this purpose, and the method will probably be adopted at once by the leading institutions. The two associations are to be congratulated upon its preparation. (J.H.W.)

Overton, Frank and Denno, Willard J.: *The Health Officer*. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Co., 1920. pp. 512. Price \$5.50.



Every well-organized community has a health officer, and it may be safely considered from several points of view that he is the most important of public officials. The authors of this book, health officers themselves, have here set forth in a practical and convenient style the chief problems of public health supervision. In a series of forty-four chapters these problems are discussed in a manner which cannot but give impetus to the public health movement everywhere. Especially interesting are the illustrations and charts through which the different elements of disease and its transmission are graphically portrayed. This book should be "required reading" for all who are in any measure responsible for community house-keeping. (J.H.W.)

Pierce, Anna Eloise: *Catalog of Literature for Advisers of Young Women and Girls*. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1921. pp. 85. Price \$1.00.

This is a compilation of approximately two thousand titles of helpful literature for women and girls, classified according to the Dewey decimal system. The subjects are well chosen. The value of the list is enhanced by the liberal use of annotations. (J.H.W.)

Pintner, Rudolf: *The Mental Survey*. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1918. pp. 116. Price \$2.50.

This book was one of early attempts to utilize the group testing method for public school surveys. It describes the development and standardization of such tests as the symbol-digit, word-building, opposites, and cancellation. Chapter IV gives some of the significant features of mental surveys of schools, and describes methods of classifying pupils. (J.H.W.)

Pyle, William Henry: *The Teacher's Ideals of Life and Happiness*. Columbia: Missouri Book Co., 1920. pp. 109.

In considering the qualifications of a prospective teacher we endeavor to test her skill in reading, writing, arithmetic, etc., and obtain a fair sample of her achievements in the more common-place aspects of pedagogy. Professor Pyle reminds us however, that we usually neglect to test what may be the most important element in her success or failure; namely, her philosophy of life. There is no doubt that most teachers have ideals, but no one can doubt, after reading this book, that these ideals may be expanded and made more useful by realizing their practical value from a professional standpoint. (J.H.W.)

Ralph, Joseph: *Psychical Surgery*. Los Angeles: Published by the author, 1920. pp. 78.

Rated by Dr. William A. White as "one of the best statements on psychoanalysis," this booklet should be of interest to those who desire an introduction to this field. The special topics dealt with include sublimation, the mental life of the child, complexes, the neuroses, and dreams. The author looks upon the psychoanalytic process not as a philosophy or creed, but as a form of mental surgery, perhaps painful at times, but, like physical surgery, a method which, if successfully applied, may bring relief from much discomfort, and result in happier and more efficient living. (J.H.W.)

Rosanoff, A. J.: *Manual of Psychiatry*. Fifth Edition. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1920. pp. 684. Price \$4.00.

In the fifth edition of this book, long familiar to every student of psychiatry, the author and his collaborators, Hollingworth, Jarrett and Neymann, while retaining the original nucleus of de Fursac's work, have rewritten much and added more in order to keep abreast of the rapid progress in this field during the past few years. New chapters, sections and appendices deal with the applications of psychology in psychiatry, intelligence tests both individual and group, extramural psychiatry, psychoneuroses, hypothyroidism, psychoanalysis, the applications of sociology in psychiatry the normal course of early mental development, and the classification of mental diseases adopted by the American Medico-Psychological Association. The chapters dealing with the technique of various special diagnostic procedures will be found particularly helpful. (J.M.)

Sharp, Frank Chapman: *Education for Character*. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Co., 1917. pp. 453. Price \$1.25.

This author looks upon moral training as but one of several departments of the great problem of development in children and young people their latent capacities for good. His study is confined to the application of the practical aspects of character training under the conditions which are commonly found in the American public school. He believes that any well conducted school can become a source of moral inspiration and benefit through the use of the sound principle of well-rounded education. It is necessary for the child first, to become acquainted with what is right; second, to have a desire to do right; and third, to have a sufficient opportunity to practice good conduct. The responsibility for moral training rests chiefly with the public schools; but this should be supported and supplemented by training in the home. (J.H.W.)

Sidis, Boris: *The Source and Aim of Human Progress*. Boston: Richard G. Badger, 1919. Price \$1.50.

Society, being composed of a group of individuals, is subject to the same laws of development, change, and abnormality as are individuals themselves. Some human weaknesses—for example suggestibility—are exhibited by the group in intensified form. Conscious and subconscious control of natural impulses are evidenced in the struggle between the upper and lower classes. If humanity is to reach its fullest development the social consciousness must be aroused toward unified thinking. The condition wherein "Each rules his race, his neighbor not his care" is no longer acceptable. But individuality as expressed through better social relationships, is not to be discarded; it is to be highly prized, encouraged, and jealously guarded—for "the source and aim of true human progress are the cultivation and development of man's self-ruling, rational, free individuality." (J.H.W.)

Strong, Jr., E. K.: *Introductory Psychology for Teachers*. Baltimore: Warwick & York, 1920. pp. 233. Price \$1.80.

Dispensing with the usual array of definitions and abstract discussions the author presents in his first lesson on "What is Psychology?" a page from Tarkington's "Penrod and Sam." Definitions follow rather than precede concretely interesting and vivid psychological situations. The study of the learning process is introduced by a visit to a first grade spelling lesson. The student is gradually led from the observation of behavior as a whole into the study of its finer subdivisions. The book is a successful attempt to put into practice in a psychological text some of the theories established as fundamental to good teaching. As arranged the



course adapts itself well to individual differences in students, furnishing a good starting point from which one can work out as far as his desires or capacities lead him. (J.M.)

**Talbot, Marion and Breckinbridge, Sophonisba Preston:** *The Modern Household*. Boston: Whitcomb & Barrows, 1919. pp. 93. Price \$1.00.

A brief and pungent presentation of the elements of the modern household. The home is discussed from the economic, custodial, educational, and community standpoint. Paramount throughout is the principle that that which aids in the producing of better cities and better citizens should receive first consideration in the home. While enunciating some of the most forward thoughts of the day, this little book nevertheless presents practicable and concrete information. An interesting feature is the discussion on clothing which tersely and adequately covers this subject. The authors have wisely omitted lengthy discussions, leaving deeper study to be indicated by the bibliography at the close of each chapter. Intelligent use of the material offered in this book should do much toward raising the standard of the modern household as a whole. (E.K.B.)

**Tridon, Andre:** *Psychoanalysis and Behavior*. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1921. pp. 354. Price \$2.50.

In an earlier book, "Psychoanalysis, its History, Theory and Practice," the author gave a clear and unbiased survey of the present development of the various phases of psychoanalytic thinking. In the present volume he makes practical application of these theories to the interpretation of human conduct. Some of the chapter headings are The Unconscious, Nerves and Nervousness, Problems of Childhood, Sleep, Sleeplessness and Nightmares, Problems of Sex, Hypnotist and Analyst, Dual Personalities, Speech and Memory Defects, Neurotic Aspects of the War, and the Four Schools of Psycho-analysis. The last chapter, summarizing the theories of Kempf, will prove a boon to the ambitious lay reader who has struggled with his highly technical "Autonomic Functions and the Personality." Throughout the book there is maintained the same clarity of thought and expression and the same breadth of outlook and impartial evaluation in the handling of the material that are characteristic of his earlier work. (J.M.)

**White, Wm. A.:** *Outlines of Psychiatry*. Washington: Nervous and Mental Disease Publishing Co., 1919. pp. 345. Price \$3.50.

This book needs no introduction. The fact that it is in its seventh edition speaks for its value and usefulness. Part I discusses the general aspects of the subject; Part II clinical classifications; and Part III methods of examination. The changes in the present edition have had in view "the getting beyond the older, more static descriptive psychiatry and carrying the student further into the realm of the newer more dynamic interpretative psychiatry." To this end such additional interpretative formulations as are consistent with the purposes of a text book have been introduced. The clearness with which the mass of material is presented, as well as the open viewpoint of the author make the book particularly well adapted to the use of present day students of psychiatry. (J. M.)

## PAMPHLETS

Bassett, Dorothy M. and Porteus, S. D.: *Sex Differences in Porteus Maze Test Performance*. Reprinted from Training School Bulletin, November 1920. pp. 14.

Beard, Margaret Kent: *The Relation Between Dependency and Retardation. A Study of 1,351 Public School Children Known to the Minneapolis Associated Charities*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Research Publications, Vol. VIII, No. 1, 1919. pp. 17. Price 25 cents.

Christian, Frank L.: *The Irresponsible Social Offender and the Incurable*. New York: Extract from the Report of the State Board of Managers of Reformatories, 1920. pp. 26.

Cooley, Edwin J.: *Tendencies and Developments in the Field of Probation*. New York: National Probation Association, 1921. pp. 27.

Doll, Edgar A.: *A Study of Multiple Criminal Factors*. Reprinted from Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology, Vol. XI, No. 1, May 1920. pp. 33-46.

Emerson, William R. P. and Manny, Frank A.: *Weight and Height in Relation to Malnutrition*. Reprinted from Archives of Pediatrics, August 1920. pp. 18.

Franz, Shepherd-Ivory: *Cerebral-Mental Relations*. Reprinted from Psychological Review, XXVIII-2, Mar. 1921. pp. 81-95.

Haines, Thomas H.: *The Mental Deficiency Survey of Kentucky, 1917*. Reprinted from Proceedings of the American Medico-Psychological Association, 74th Annual Meeting, Chicago, Ill. June 4-7, 1918. pp. 195-205.

Henry, Mary Bess: *Four Years of Standard Tests and Measurements*. Santa Ana, California: Public Schools, Dept. of Research, Bull. No. 3, 1921. pp. 27.

Horack, Frank E.: *Child Legislation in Iowa*. University of Iowa Studies in Child Welfare, Vol. 1, No. 6. pp. 36. Price 25 cents.

Laughlin, Harry H.: *Eugenical Sterilization in the United States*. New York: American Social Hygiene Association, 1920. pp. 32.

Monroe, Walter S.: *Report of Division of Educational Tests for '19-20*. Urbana: University of Illinois, Jan. 1921. pp. 64. Price 25 cents.

National Probation Association: *Social Service in the Courts*. Annual report. Albany, 1920. pp. 164. Price \$1.00.

Stinchfield, Sara M.: *A Preliminary Study in Corrective Speech*. Iowa City. University of Iowa, 1920. pp. 36. Price 40 cents.

U. S. Children's Bureau: *State Commissions for the Study and Revision of Child Welfare Laws*. Washington, 1920. pp. 43.

University of Iowa: *Administration and Scope of the Iowa Child Welfare Research Station*. Iowa City, July 1920. pp. 20.

Van Wagenen, Marvin J.: *Historical Information and Judgment in Pupils of Elementary Schools*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1919. pp. 74.

Wallin, J. E. W.: *The Problems Confronting a Psycho-Educational Clinic in a Large Municipality*. Reprinted from Mental Hygiene, IV-1, Jan. 1920. pp. 103-136.



## PERIODICAL LITERATURE

**In the Light of Recent Developments What Should be our Policy in Dealing with Delinquents—Juvenile and Adult.** A summary of the experience of scientific investigators in the field of delinquency with emphasis upon the latest problem—the delinquent psychopath. This writer feels that much of the method of treatment still depends upon degree of responsibility and says in conclusion: "Is it possible in view of all the facts that the wisest policy is to have a thorough examination into the question of responsibility, to segregate and control the feeble-minded and psychopathic offenders, but upon those who are not clearly irresponsible, to visit the severest penalty?"—*Henry H. Goddard*. *Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology*, XI-3, Nov. 1920. pp. 426-433. (E.K.B.)

**Neglected Children of the Appalachia.** Despite the fact that eight different states contribute citizens to the Appalachian district, a vast majority of the children of this region are sorely neglected. They are without protection against contaminating influences. Many children do not attend school even when it is available. Apparently none of the eight states have realized their responsibility toward the child and his right to a decent home and training for future usefulness.—*Sara A. Brown*. *The American Child*, III-2, Aug. 1921. pp. 177-183. (E.K.B.)

**The Criminologist and the Courts.** A brief discussion of some of the personality types which have proven themselves of unusual importance in criminological study. First among these is the paranoid or egocentric personality which may be associated with feeble-mindedness or insanity but is neither. The ego is given undue weight with consequent anti-social conduct. "In statistical analysis of institutions, it has been found that frequently from fifty to seventy-five per cent of the inmates of the reformatory or penitentiary consists of this group. In the Juvenile Court, Chicago, practically all cases which are found to be neither feeble-minded or insane and which fail on probation belong to this type." The defective delinquent is more often a problem because of behavior reactions and egocentric personality than of mental defect. The psychopathic criminal presents a definite problem of mental pathology. To meet the situation thus uncovered by criminological research, criminals and delinquents should be committed "to the guardianship of the state, to be under the scientific direction of trained criminologists."—*Herman M. Adler*. *Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology*, XI-3, Nov. 1920. pp. 410-425. (E.K.B.)

**A Method of Personality Diagnosis and Evaluation.** Increased attention is being paid to the "quality of mentality which we call character in contrast with the degree of mentality which we call intelligence." With the recognition of this distinction comes the study of personality and an attempt to produce some method of measuring it. A tentative classification of behavior disorders is based upon the findings in the fields of mental disease, intelligence, and character. Responsibility is considered as annulled, limited or entire, according to the personality of the individual. Characterial deviations occur in individuals of similar intelligence and greatly affect their social reactions. In the field of character, the interview is still the best means of examination. From it and other descriptions of conduct are drawn conclusions upon which character may be classified.—*Guy G. Fernald*. *Studies in Mental Inefficiency*, II-2, April 1921. pp. 25-34. (E.K.B.)

**The Mental Hygiene Aspects of Illegitimacy.** The aim of mental hygiene in its approach to the problem of an individual or of society is to discover the motives that lie behind acts and to recognize in the personality of individuals the influencing elements. It is absurd to accept the concept of mental hygiene as synonymous with mental pathology. The mere fact of illicit sex relationship, does not justify the assumption that a pathological mental situation is involved. This impression has become general because studies have been made only of certain groups of delinquents. Until studies are made among all strata of society, we have no true criteria for judgment. The most important group to consider is that in whom illicit expression exists as a definite behavior tendency. To define this type of behavior from the mental hygiene view point we must refrain from looking at it from an ethical standpoint, and regard it as any other behavior problem. It is evident that a pathological state of sex equipment does exist, which may result in a precocious sex development. Situations of this type can be looked at from a medical view point. Intense sex craving may not depend entirely upon physiological difficulties. There are those who accept the life of promiscuity in a blind attempt to compensate for the things which life fails to furnish. Psychopathology has brought to light that sex factors enter into the father-daughter and mother-son relationship due to pathological attachment. Those who possess normal sex development but lack normal inhibitory equipment belong to a group with definite correlation between feeble-mindedness and illicit practices. These individuals should be protected from becoming innocent victims of the sex activities of others. This may be accomplished by early recognition and adequate institutional care. The higher graded defectives often endeavor to seek expression for their desires in promiscuous relationship. This phase of the problem may be overcome when judges recognize the importance of mental deficiency and accord the defective individual the care of an institution. What can mental hygiene do in a constructive way in dealing with these problems? The worker can do much to explain and help the individual to make certain personal adjustments and to use driving force for constructive, not destructive purposes.—*M. E. Kenworthy*. *Mental Hygiene*, V-3, July, 1921. pp. 499-508. (*Elizabeth I. Edmundson*)

**Child Welfare Work and the State.** The success of child welfare work depends largely upon the cooperation between various social agencies. Cooperation and coordination should become more than mere catch-words; they should be realized. Their realization is largely a state function. "The private agency is the stimulating element of social work—the state is the staying element." To correct overlapping and to produce equal efficiency throughout, the state supervisory bodies must have administrative power. Individual initiative must not be crushed in the process however. Rather should state supervision and coordination broaden the viewpoint and give a perspective, in this way stimulating greater initiative and progress.—*Edward N. Clopper*. *The American Child*, III-2, August 1921. pp. 152-160. (*E. K. B.*)

**A Comparative Inquiry on the Heredity and Social Conditions among Certain Insane, Mentally Defective and Normal Persons.** A study of 60 insane, 60 mentally defective and 60 normal persons. More mental deficiency appeared in the pedigrees of mentally defective persons; and more insanity among those of insane



persons. Employment conditions in the insane group were varied, pedigrees showed individuals economically independent and economically dependent. In the mentally defective group, employment conditions were more uniformly bad, good trades and high wages being rare. Home conditions brought out clearly the better social and economic status of the normal group. The two abnormal groups fell heavily toward the low end where "food was inadequate, the clothing very poor and bare necessities were lacking." Similarly, the normal group was far less liable to be dependent upon relief than was the mentally defective group.—*Agnes M. Kelley and E. J. Lidbetter. Eugenics Review, XIII-2, July 1921. pp. 394-406. (E.K.B.)*

**Infant Education.** A plea for the beginning of systematized education of the child before age six. Education is synonymous with learning and should therefore be guided from infancy. Persons especially trained for this purpose produce better results than the present haphazard method of leaving it to parents. The visiting teacher can assist the mother to direct the child until he is about three years old. After that his full development demands a larger social group than the family. The kindergarten or infant school provides this opportunity under the guidance of another especially trained and fitted teacher.—*James L. Stockton. Education, XLI-10, June, 1921. pp. 617-623. (E.K.B.)*

**Experiment to Determine the Possibilities of Subnormal Girls in Factory Work.** During the war industries were compelled to draw upon every source of supply for labor. Hence many subnormals were employed, which placed the industrial world in an abnormal situation. A large rubber company, realizing that many of their labor troubles were due to this low grade of labor sought a solution by studying this new type of labor to determine its possibilities. By the subdivision of labor the less intelligent worker can be placed on unskilled jobs, leaving the more difficult for higher type of workers. Research work was resorted to in order to determine the types of jobs that were within their capacity. The candidates were given the Stanford-Binet Test, and also tests with concrete materials. Each subnormal individual must be handled as a separate problem. There were, however, two general types. The first, the imbecile group from 5 to 7 mentally, are able to perform simple jobs earning from \$8.00 to \$10.00 per week. Being dull and inactive they require little or no supervision when trained, they become faithful workers, thus becoming self supporting. The moron group, from 8 to 11 mentally, are the most troublesome type. They require constant watching and are a menace to the community. This type can be trained to take pains to a certain point, but not beyond that. Monotonous jobs are best suited to them, cleanliness or dirtiness is immaterial. When placed under a supervisor who will study and encourage them their personal loyalty is very great. Some of these individuals had been giving trouble outside, but when provided with suitable employment were happy and contented. The supervisor should be a person of infinite patience and tact. The experiment shows that an improvement of state legislation in regard to the labor law of subnormals is required. Defectives are children who will never grow up. By providing proper supervision and occupation they may be rendered self supporting and useful members of the community.—*Elizabeth B. Bigelow. Mental Hygiene, V-2, April, 1921. pp. 302-320. (Elizabeth I. Edmundson)*

**The Rudiments of Character.** By means of the four sensitive zones, oral, urethral, anal and respiratory, the infant establishes its earliest connections with

the external world. The relief of tension of these zones by their proper stimulus gives him his first satisfactions. The emotions of love and hate develop out of these tensions and their demands and satisfactions and non-satisfactions. Affection is bestowed upon an object that satisfies a bodily want, hate is aroused by whatever interferes with the satisfaction of one. Hate implies pre-existing desire. Primal hate objects are also primal love objects. Oral love and anal love are associated with opposite motives. Their effects on character formation will be very dissimilar. Oral love with its impulse to bite, eat, embrace, leads to active expressions seeking to master the love object. Anal love develops with the more passive submissive characters. So with regard to each of the zones. In the earliest experiences of the child at the vegetative level lie the ultimate analysis of his character. In later life an individual reacts to other personalities and to the forces of nature as he once responded to his own vegetative forces. From the practical standpoint of early education nothing can be more important than an understanding of these facts.—*David Forsythe*. *Psychoanalytic Review*, VIII-2, Apr., 1921. pp. 117-143. (J.M.)

**Essential Limitation and Subdivisions of Idiocy on a Comparative Psychological Basis.** Defining the power of understanding as "the psychical basis which makes it possible to react in an adequate way to a new situation," we may make a qualitative distinction between the idiot and the imbecile, the imbecile being one who shows some power of understanding, the idiot being one who lacks his power. Representatives of the latter group are, in their reactions toward their environment, comparable to subanthropoid animals. Three grades of idiocy may be distinguished, first, that which shows powers of both attention and imitation (but with no understanding), second that which shows only power of attention and, third, that which lacks even the power of attention. Some mutes and deaf mutes appear to be of the imbecile group and for them may be used normal human learning methods. The learning of the idiot is always by trial and error methods with sometimes imitation, but always without understanding. A good measure for differential diagnosis is a subject's reaction to a small Thorndike problem box. After 25 unsuccessful trials he may be considered to lack power of understanding. After 25 trials where no reaction is forthcoming a subject may be said to lack power of attention.—*H. de Jong*. *Journal of Nervous and Mental Disease*, LXIV-1, July, 1921. pp. 1-30. (J.M.)

**Reduction of Nervous Irritability and Excitement by Progressive Relaxation.** Overactivity of the central nervous system as shown by exaggerated movement of striated muscles or by tenseness is subject to voluntary control. The neurotic individual having usually partly lost the natural ability to relax must cultivate it. Emotions tend to subside with relaxation. Two difficulties in the way of calming mental excitement are the interference of worries and the lack of recognition of tenseness in the smaller muscles. This tension left over when the larger muscles are apparently relaxed must be done away with. The method consists in progressive relaxation of the various groups of muscles and the acquirement of conscious control over the process. Through practice the patient is taught how to gain this. Suggestion in the technical sense is to be avoided. This method is not presented as a panacea for mental disorders but good results have been obtained in several cases cited and it is hoped that it may be adapted to the use of the



general practitioner.—*Edmund Jacobson. Journal of Nervous and Mental Disease, LXIII-4, Apr., 1921. pp. 282-291. (J.M.)*

## STATE AND INSTITUTION REPORTS

**California. School for Girls.** Biennial Report, 1920. Mrs. Mary A. Hill, superintendent. Ventura, Cal. pp. 19.

The program of this school, with the purpose of "setting the girls' feet on the road to right citizenship," contains several factors which enter into the life of the good citizen,—“the building and maintaining of sound bodies, useful work, vital schooling, wholesome play, respect for law, practical religion, beauty, hope, vision.” The school is built on the cottage plan and unusual facilities are provided for promoting the health and well-being of the inmates. A report of psychological work at the school, recently taken over by the Bureau of Juvenile Research, includes a summary of the previous findings of Dr. Grace Fernald, in addition to the results of tests made during the first six months of 1920 by Miss Julia Mathews, of the Bureau of Juvenile Research. The social intelligence classifications as indicated by the latter tests are as follows:

Superior.....	5 cases, or 5.4 per cent
Average-normal....	23 cases, or 25.1 per cent
Dull-normal.....	17 cases, or 18.5 per cent
Borderline.....	23 cases, or 25.1 per cent
Feeble-minded.....	24 cases, or 26.0 per cent

Among the practical applications of psychological work mentioned are (1) relation of test findings to vocational and schoolroom training, (2) assisting in segregation and moral training, (3) providing insight into requirements for satisfactory after-care and supervision, and (4) contributing to the scientific study of human problems. (W.W.C.)

**California. Preston School of Industry.** Fourteenth Biennial Report, 1918-1920. O. H. Close, superintendent. Waterman, Cal. pp. 60.

This school is located in Amador County, about 40 miles southeast of Sacramento. It receives boys over 16 years of age committed from the Juvenile courts. The report states that the past two years have been a period of much change and readjustment, during which the special services of Superintendent Fred. C. Nelles are acknowledged. Self-government, which was not successful, has been abolished, as has corporal punishment. Psychological examinations (Army alpha) of 255 boys gave the following results, in comparison with 480 high school pupils (percentage distribution):

	Preston	H. S.
A Very superior	1.7	2.5
B Superior	3.4	13.7
C—Above average	8.5	40.0
C+ Average	22.5	36.6
C—Below average	19.6	7.0
D Dull	23.1	0.2
D—Defective	21.2	0.0

The latter half of the report is devoted to the results of parole work. It is stated that of 452 boys on parole during the latter fiscal year, 27, or 6 per cent, definitely failed, and 29 others or 6.5 per cent, “technically failed” by being unaccounted for.

The report publishes the names on 103 "honor" boys, 47 on the "negligent" list, and 43 on the "failure" list, for the two year period. At the close of the biennium the enrollment of the school was 383, with 293 additional boys on parole. (J.H.W.)

**California.** *Pacific Hebrew Orphan Asylum.* The Organization and Construction of a Child Caring Institution, 1919. Samuel Langer, superintendent. San Francisco, Cal. pp. 64.

A summary of recommendations regarding the reorganization of Pacific Hebrew Orphan Asylum is presented in this booklet, and is based on extensive investigation and visiting by Dr. Langer. An institution of the cottage type, located within the city limits using public school facilities for education, which will provide for small groups of both sexes in each cottage is recommended. The report contains a practical discussion of the problems of a child-helping agency which has "long since ceased to be primarily an orphanage." (W.W.C.)

**Canada.** *Inspector of Auxiliary Classes of Ontario.* Fifth Annual Report, 1919. Helen MacMurchy, inspector. pp. 60.

This report by Dr. MacMurchy indicates progress made in the province of Ontario in providing for physically and mentally handicapped children. It is desired that "Advancement Classes" for gifted children be organized, as well as that more adequate instruction through specially trained teachers be given to atypical cases. Numerous quotations and statements of progress in the field of educational legislation and administration, together with summaries of recent literature in related fields add value to the report. Under the Ontario Auxillary Classes act passed in 1914 the following classes may be recognized: advancement, promotion, English, disciplinary and parental, open air, hospital, sanitorium, ambulance, speech, sight-saving, lip-reading, institution, special for epileptics, and training for mental defectives. (W.W.C.)

**Delaware.** *Industrial School for Girls.* Biennial Report, 1920. Mrs. Emma S. Jackson, superintendent. Claymont, Del. pp. 36.

The length of stay in this school is determined by a system of merits and demerits, the shortest possible stay is eighteen months, the average time being two years five months. The population at the end of the biennial period was eighty-two girls. (W.W.C.)

**Mississippi.** *Industrial and Training School.* Annual Report 1919. W. Jacobs, superintendent. Columbia, Miss. pp. 41.

This is a new industrial school completed in 1918 and having on June 30, 1919 a population of thirty-nine girls, average age eleven, and forty-five boys, average age thirteen. Destitute, abandoned, and delinquent children less than eighteen years of age may be admitted when regularly committed. (W.W.C.)

**Missouri.** *State Board of Charities and Corrections.* Proceedings Missouri Conference of Social Welfare, 1919. Monthly Bulletin, XX-1, Aug. 1920. J. L. Wagner, secretary. Jefferson City, Mo. pp. 105.

This bulletin presents addresses and proceedings of the nineteenth annual Missouri conference of social welfare. Consideration was given particularly to the problem of the mental defectives, after the war conditions, and the Negro problem in Missouri. (W.W.C.)



New York. *Rome State School*. Twenty-fifth Annual Report, 1919. Charles Bernstein, superintendent. Rome, N. Y. pp. 37:

The policy of this institution for feeble-minded has changed in recent years. Formerly the whole outlook was custody for life for all as far as possible, now the practice is more hopeful and encouraging, namely: "After training and changed or improved environment a chance for home or colony life for all, except the low grade and extremely depraved and deluded repeaters in delinquency. As a result of this from four to five hundred beds are vacated at the present institution each year through colonies, paroles and discharges, thus making it possible for a like number of new cases to have the benefits and like opportunity for a better existence, even to the extent of leading useful lives in the community." Students of social problems are watching with interest the experiments conducted by Dr. Bernstein in colony and parole care of feeble-minded boys and girls; they seem to provide both an economical and humanitarian method of caring for mental defectives. (W.W.C.)

New York. *State Reformatories*. Annual Report, 1920. Frank L. Christian, superintendent. Elmira, N. Y. pp. 76.

This report gives considerable attention to the problem of irresponsible social offenders of three general types: (1) the epileptic; (2) the mental defective; and (3) those having aberrations affecting the quality of their minds. The present method of considering the higher grade of feeble-minded, the less apparent but most dangerous epileptics, and the half-insane and similar abnormals within the limits of the penal law must be revised as it at present is not fully capable of properly handling the situation. The first step in the solution of the problem "must be the enlightenment of public officials and public opinion, and an understanding of the mental condition, not only of the inmates of the reformatory, but all those now under conviction or confinement as criminals, arrived at through competent and thorough psychiatric examination. . . . Further specific remedial legislation should wait a little until it is thus made clear just what is needed to be accomplished. . . . The general proposition underlying all efforts along this line should be substantially this—when an individual has committed a social offense by violating one of the prohibitions of the penal law, and the state has apprehended him and assumed to restrain his liberty, and it appears that his anti-social condition was due to or influenced by his subnormal or abnormal mentality, he should continue to be restrained and to receive appropriate custodial care until it clearly appears that his release will not be inconsistent with the public welfare." Dr. Christian presents in this report a discussion of "The Incurable," giving a summary of results of an experiment with those who do not respond to the usual institutional program. This group constitutes about two per cent of the institution population, all are mentally defective in some way, and there is little likelihood of their making a satisfactory response in society. Of all cases paroled from Elmira during the year, 88 per cent had obtained their final release or by good conduct and regular reports were in the process of earning it. Twelve per cent failed to fulfill the conditions of their parole. At Napanoch on the same classification, 76 per cent were succeeding and 24 per cent were failing. (W.W.C.)

North Dakota. *Institution for Feeble-minded*. Biennial Report, 1918. A. R. T. Wylie, superintendent. Grafton, N. D. pp. 25.

It was estimated on the basis of the 1910 census "that there were 1731 feeble-minded children in North Dakota and of this amount the Institution is only able to care for 270." There is an increasing demand for the admission of defective delinquent girls for whose care and protection present buildings are not suitable. In addition to the purely feeble-minded cases, the institution population includes 24 epileptic boys and 27 epileptic girls of feeble-minded grade. (W.W.C.)

**Ohio.** *Board of Administration. The Bureau of Juvenile Research.* Dr. H. H. Goddard, director. Columbus, Ohio. 1918-1920. pp. 50.

This report is submitted by Dr. Goddard and his two chief assistants, Dr. Gertrude H. Transeau, physician, and Dr. Florence Mateer, psychoclinician. The work of the first two years under Dr. Goddard's direction is described in detail. Under the present law in Ohio, all state wards are committed to the State Board of Administration, and are passed upon by the Bureau of Juvenile Research before being assigned to an institution. Cottages are maintained by the Bureau for housing children who need special observation or study. The institution problem in Ohio, as in other states, is so largely one of mental deficiency that the Bureau is clogged with feeble-minded children for whom the institution provisions are inadequate. Many of these children are returned to the courts for the judge to "provide for them as best he may." The Bureau is housed in a set of buildings for which an appropriation of \$100,000 has been made. The work is promising and the field almost unlimited. Ohio has set a progressive example in organizing its institution problem. (J.H.W.)

**South Carolina.** *State Board of Public Welfare. Feeble-mindedness and Its Care in South Carolina. Quarterly Bulletin, 1-2, June, 1920.* I. Croft Williams, secretary. Columbia, S. C. pp. 28.

An elementary, up-to-date, and scientific statement of the problem of the feeble-minded is given in this bulletin. It is especially suitable for public use as the writers have presented their data in an interesting and non-technical manner. The six chapter headings are: feeble-mindedness, causes of feeble-mindedness, history of treatment, diagnosis by means of mental treatment, the care of the feeble-minded, and social aspects. South Carolina has just completed the first cottage unit of the new State Training School and is evidently planning to profit by the mistakes and experiences of other states which have been dealing with the problem for a longer period of time. (W.W.C.)

**Utah.** *State Board of Insanity and State Mental Hospital. Biennial Report, 1920.* G. E. Hyde, superintendent. Provo, Utah. pp. 36.

The completion of a state census of the feeble-minded, based on group intelligence tests to over 15,000 children up to the fifth grade and "authentic information from social service workers," indicated that there are approximately 1500 definitely feeble-minded in the state. Of this number 600, or 40 per cent, require segregation or institutional care; the group is made up as follows: idiots, 45; imbeciles, 255; morons, 300. Mental clinics have been conducted in the large cities of the state one day every month for the purpose of (1) inquiring into condition and environment of discharged and paroled patients; (2) examining retarded and psychopathic school children; (3) examining delinquents whose behavior indicates mental defect or disease; (4) advising and treating persons having incipient



mental disease. The State Mental Hospital had 1013 patients under care during the biennium with an average population of about 650. A complete serological examination of all patients indicated that nine per cent of the patients have been infected with syphilis. (W.W.C.)

**Wyoming.** *State Department of Education.* Report of the State Director of Special Classes, 1919-1920. Elise A. Seyfarth, director of special classes. Cheyenne, Wyoming. pp. 28.

A report of the work with mentally and physically handicapped children in Wyoming begun in November, 1919 under the direction of Miss Seyfarth. Surveying of elementary schools and organization of special classes for defective, handicapped, and gifted children are among the principal activities reported. A survey of a typical coal-mining town indicates 1.5 per cent of children were of I. Q. 1.20 or above while 7.0 per cent had I. Q. .75 or below, estimates based on Stanford-Binet tests. The problem of the rural schools is one of the most difficult, and there is a serious need of well trained teachers, but much progress is being made and many schools are contemplating complete reorganization. (W.W.C.)

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# The Journal of Delinquency

Volume VI

November, 1921

Number 6

## NEAR-DELINQUENTS IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

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The problem of the near delinquent child is one that has been given very little attention. That teacher is fortunate who does not have at least one unruly child in her class, and that school is fortunate, whose teachers try to study such a child and give him proper correction. Correction is too often for the benefit of the teacher. Sending a child from the room, whipping, suspension or public humiliation before the class do not materially help the diseased mind of the near-delinquent child. Delinquency seems to be analogous to a mental disease, a peculiar anti-social state of mind that requires asskilled treatment as other types of mental aberration.

We will not progress far in reforming children unless we begin early, and the earlier we begin, the stronger will be our foundations for real character making. The place to re-form children is in the elementary school grades, during the so called plastic age. A well worked out practical course in character building may assist us, but such a course must not preach in words. Individual study of the child's needs and sympathetic help on the part of the teacher will be of even greater assistance. There will always be some children who need to be looked after continually and a properly conducted parental school in every county and large city, where the child may have the constant supervision of experts, is a real necessity for their welfare. Our immediate problem is to try to influence the child and fit him to take his place as a social instead of an anti-social being. It is becoming recognized that juvenile delinquency is primarily a problem for the public schools to solve. It is the duty of the schools to find out for themselves whether delinquency can be prevented. The first step in the solution of a problem is to see it in concrete form and analyze every phase of it that can be found.

During the past year, the schools of a certain small city have been making a special attempt to understand their own problems of delinquency. The principals of all the city schools were asked to make

lists of pupils who seemed in danger of becoming delinquent, and about fifty names were given.

One school including grades I to V reported no delinquents; two schools reported one each; two schools reported six cases. The majority of the cases are from the sixth, seventh and eighth grades. These are the unresponsive children in the schools and may be considered "near delinquents."

These near delinquents come from all types of homes, ranging from dirty tents and garages to good comfortable homes. In nearly every case the parental supervision is poor; not intentionally poor in many cases but there seems to be a general lack of understanding of the child's needs on the part of some parents who are genuinely concerned in the child's welfare.

In 14 of the 50 cases one parent is dead; in 9 cases the parents are separated; in all other cases parental supervision has been shifted by one or both parents.

Intelligence tests applied to the group gave the following results:

Feeble-minded .....	17
Borderline.....	10
Dull-normal .....	10
Average-normal.....	12
Superior.....	1

Forty-five of the 50 cases are doing poor work in school, four are doing average work and one superior.

Physically the majority of the boys seem below par while the girls are usually well developed.

The case histories represent the present serious near-delinquent problems of the schools under consideration. Two cases which were former problems are included.

These cases were presented by the writer to a group of men and women, members of the city clubs and societies, who were asked for remedial suggestions. One member of the group was the local Y. M. C. A. secretary, who volunteered to present the matter to the men of two clubs. These two clubs have together a membership of one hundred men, who are representatives of every business and profession in the city. These men are quick to take an active interest in any practical work for the good of the city. The problem of the near-delinquent was presented to them and they volunteered their help. Every boy now has an older friend, who takes



an active interest in him. The boys do not know that they are adopted and the movement to help them has been given no publicity. Experts from outside the city are frequently called in to speak to the men. Each man is studying his own particular problem, devising a method of approaching his boy and gaining his confidence. All are beginning to realize their difficulties and have begun to consider the necessity of immediate action in starting a parental school, which the county will be asked to provide.

The problem of the girl near-delinquent seems especially difficult. Sex immorality is the chief offense and women hesitate to take girls of this type into the family. The women's clubs of the city are to be asked for their cooperation, which has been practically assured. It is planned to secure a police-woman for duty from four in the afternoon until midnight, who will make regular nightly rounds of all suspicious places in the city and to provide a home where any girl may be taken, who is on the street after 10 P. M. without adequate escort.

We need, most of all, a development of parental responsibility and a proper supervision for children whose parents are incapable of such responsibility.

The fifty cases that follow do not include any children from the regular Mexican schools. Except where noted, the children are white children of American birth.

#### BOYS. CASES 1 TO 40.

##### *1. Age 13-1. Mental age 10-5. I. Q. .80.*

Low mentality but is doing fair work in school in the high fifth grade. Health seems good and general physical appearance is unusually attractive. Extremely anxious that no one should guess that he was adopted. Has been in public school two years. Said he was sick for the first eleven years of his life, was in bed and too weak to stand, but we found later that he had spent the time in the orphan asylum. Boy asked his mother after the test if he had told a lie. Had told the same story to different teachers and begged his mother to say nothing about his adoption. Conduct in school has been excellent. Conditions in the adopted home are favorable but his adopted mother should persuade him to accept the situation as an adopted child and impress upon him some of the desirable points in being adopted. Otherwise he is in danger of becoming a pathological case.

2. *Age 12-4. Mental age 10-8. Binet I. Q. .87. Terman I. Q. .78.*

Tested first in fifth grade on account of misconduct in school. In the sixty word test, in year X of the Binet, the boy started the list with "whiskey, beer, gin, brandy, wine, tobacco, cigarettes, pipe." Found out later that the list contained a fair idea of his home conditions. Temperament apparently phlegmatic in some classes and highly excitable in others. Difficult to hold his attention. School work generally poor. Boy an inveterate cigarette smoker, under-nourished and anaemic appearance. Home conditions very poor. Parents lack conception of proper morals and thought it all right when boys showed special interest in chorus girls. Boy says he expects to leave school as soon as he is 16. Social outlook poor as he is now in the low seventh grade and has the same attitude that he has had for the past four years. Boy is good to his mother and has often protected her from a drunken father. Conduct has been generally incorrigible in class, on school grounds and on the street. Has done some petty thieving.

3. *First Binet: Age 9-2. Mental age 9-8. I. Q. 1.05. Binet two years later: Age 12-4. Mental age 9-11. I. Q. .80.*

Passed the same test in second Binet that he did the first, adding fables in year XII of the Binet. Very anxious to do his best during the test. Passed comprehension tests through year X. Seemed to understand what he ought to do but lacked the will to do it. Symptoms of decided mental instability. Temperament excitable. Very sensitive and unhappy when corrected. School work consistently poor. Boy is thin and under-nourished. Several scars on the head which he said were the result of serious falls a few years previously. Vicious toward smaller children. Bit one child severely at school. Knocked a boy down and stole his bicycle. Stole cap from another boy, removed the brass buttons from it and returned full of holes. Has been before the juvenile court for stealing. Disobedient and impudent to teachers. Uses vile language on school grounds. Home conditions poor. Beaten unmercifully by father, according to neighbors' reports. Mother reported to be a kleptomaniac. Social outlook poor, as boy lacks will power to overcome delinquent tendencies and receives no sympathetic supervision at home. Boy had idea that his delinquency was entirely due to fall and that he was not responsible. Examiner endeavored to convince him that he was responsible and that the fall was unimportant.



*4. Age 11-4. Binet mental age 9-1. I. Q. .80.*

Phlegmatic during Binet, yet seemed to do his best. In interpretation of the picture of men reading paper, he said, "There is some thing in the paper. All the old men are looking at the picture of a pretty girl in dancing clothes." Gave twelve year interpretation of fables. Passed all comprehension tests at year VIII and comprehension *b* in year X with "Figger up and then do it." Volunteered the information that his father had run away from home because there were too many men coming there. Poor work in all subjects in low third grade. Physical condition very poor. Extremely thin and undernourished. Mouth breather. Enlarged tonsils and possibly adenoids. Voice indistinct and husky during test, squirmed continually from side to side. Lips dry and parched like those of a continual smoker. Heavy bags under the eyes. Dirty, and unkempt. General conduct bad. Runs wild. Stole eggs from neighbors and money from milk bottles. Recently, when angry, shot a second grade boy (Case 30) through the ankle. Said it was accidental and was allowed to go practically unpunished. Mother says boy is beyond her control and she is not responsible. Home conditions wretched. Mother lives in garage with man, who claims to be a boarder. Says the world owes her a living so she and her children are taking it. Too much charity help is given family. Mother is apparently same mentality as boy, possibly lower. Social outlook, penitentiary, unless boy is removed absolutely from present surroundings. On account of low mentality of boy, case seems hopeless if left in society. Really an institutional case.

*5. Age 16-0. Otis mental age 16-0. I. Q. 1.00.*

School work below average. Has two sisters who tested superior by the Binet, who never seemed able to do average school work. Discrepancy probably due to the fact that one and a half years of the mental age obtained was due to memory for the repetition of digits. In the free association test given after the boy had stolen some articles, which theft was never proved, the following words were included: "watch, thief, time." One of the cleverest petty thieves the schools have ever known. Has court record for forgery. Writes bogus checks with left hand and when taken before court, has proved innocence by writing with right hand. Has been suspected of stealing several times, but always evaded detection. Was finally caught by means of marked money. Was taken before the juvenile

court but released on parole. Lives in tent near railroad. Father a junk man, mother dirty and untidy, home extremely dirty, stove out in the open, social outlook very poor. Should be taken from present environment and placed under strict supervision.

6. *Age 13-8. Binet mental age 10-3. I. Q. .75.*

*Age 13-5. Illinois mental age 7-0. I. Q. .52.*

Poor quality of answers, especially vocabulary in Binet. Repeated the word given every time and had to be asked "and what does that mean?" In the sixty word test, included the group "business college, court house, jail, reform school, payment." Passed comprehension at year X well, but failed on vocabulary and sixty word test for that year. Failed on rhymes in year IX. Health poor. Has night sweats, looks undernourished. Absent frequently on account of illness. Has peculiar streak of snow white hair just above his forehead. Loafs, does poor school work. Bully toward other boys. Indifferent, deceitful, sluggish. Never enters into play unless there is an opportunity to bully someone. Mother works away from home all day. Father dead. Older brother tries to exercise some supervision over boy and has tried to settle difficulties for him in the earlier grades. Wants to be a railroad engineer. Social outlook poor. Boy should be in institution for feeble-minded.

7. *Age 10-11. Binet mental age 14-2. I. Q. 1.29.*

*Age 10-8. Illinois mental age 11-2. I. Q. 1.04.*

Pleasant attitude during test. Lacked a straight forward look. Nails bitten to the quick. Passed all tests at year XII; 1, 2, 4, 6 at year XIV and fables and digits at XVI. Vocabulary very clear and concise. Evidence of bad sex habits. When spoken to about the physical effects of bad habits, he looked rather keenly at the examiner and said "You mean if I have 'em, I've got to give 'em up, I know it." Says he used to smoke but had stopped as he got the horse whip every time his father caught him. Good physical appearance. Nine pounds underweight. Boy seemed anxious to gain enough to get up to weight. Very stubborn, sullen, fierce tempered and a whiner. Decided tendency to sex immortality. Resentful. Badly spoiled. Neighborhood plague. Stole money from little girl on street. Split back of neighbor's auto top. Mother died when he was a baby. Boy has been raised by father, who seems intensely interested in him but uses too much corporal punishment. According to report, father beats boy unmercifully. Father a brilliant man,



an elderly surgeon who formerly held a very important position. Boy plans to be a physician. Social outlook, probably good. Boy is doing excellent work in school.

8. *Age 12-3. Mental age 13-5. I.Q. 1.09.*

Actively interested in test. Had been given a short Binet a year previously on which he made an I. Q. of 98. Good sensible clear responses. Vocabulary well defined. Physical appearance, good. Health apparently good. Has bad teeth due to disease of teeth when two years old. School work average in sixth grade. Hot tempered. Tendency to truancy. Ran away with another boy remaining all night. Said he just couldn't wait until vacation. Tampered with a report card so that it indicated promotion when he was retained. Belongs to Boy Scouts and goes to church and Sunday school. Good mixer. Mother deeply interested in boy. Boy is interested in his athletic record. Has worked a great deal in bowling alleys in the beach towns, said he would work here, only he hadn't seen any bowling alleys. Social outlook, fair. Closer parental supervision needed.

9. *Age 12-9. Binet mental age 11-6. I.Q. .90.*

*Age 12-6. Illinois mental age 10-8. I.Q. .85.*

Sixty word test revealed unusual interest in birds and nature study. Passed induction and clock tests at year XIV. Meek, quiet looking child. Hearing not keen. Said he had difficulty in hearing in certain rooms. Said he only "cheated" when writing on some hard questions." Eyes seem to trouble him, winked continually when trying to see work clearly. Loafs and cheats badly on written work. Does not seem to notice reproof by teachers. Teachers think he is not well, but he has not been absent from school much on account of illness. Home conditions good. Parents extremely religious and very much interested in boy. Social outlook good. Cheating and loafing may be due to defect in vision or hearing, or he may not comprehend class work.

10. *Age 15-1. Mental age 12-9. I.Q. .85.*

Test given three years ago when boy was in eighth grade. Work in school generally poor. Entered high school remaining but a short time. Was in continual trouble through grades. While in eighth grade brought a revolver to school to "shoot up" the school. Very erratic. Entered army and was continually in guard house for breach of

discipline. Is now discharged and loafing around the streets. Parental supervision has always been poor. Social outlook poor, as it is highly improbable that the boy will keep out of trouble.

11. *Age 14-6. Mental age 14-0. I.Q. .96.*

Unusually courteous during test. Gave clear intelligent answers. Passed ten year vocabulary. Is making up sixth grade work so that he can enter junior high school in the fall. Has done very satisfactory fifth grade work and has made no trouble in school. Ran away from home two years ago and has been out of school since that time. Has very unsympathetic step-mother, who nags him and tells him he is bad and incorrigible. Father scarcely allows boy enough money for decent clothing. Boy has been working on farm and likes it better than any other work. Has cared for horses and done a man's work at a man's salary. Plowed and harvested while on the farm. Physical conditions good. Seems anything but incorrigible. Social outlook good if some person will take a sympathetic interest in him and help secure a place where he can have a good home and congenial work. Since test, boy has run away again and his present whereabouts are unknown.

12. *Age 11-0. Binet mental age 12-2. I.Q. 1.10.*

*Age 12-5. Group mental age 10-2. I.Q. .82.*

Extremely garrulous during tests. Volunteered all sorts of information in regard to news of the day. Said he always read the divorce and murder news in the newspapers and magazines. Added some bit of newspaper knowledge to many test answers. Tests was during campaign and one piece of information was "Harding's a good guy. Hoover's interest is in England." Again, "O, I was thinking of that Catholic priest that killed the woman in church the other day." Had fourteen year vocabulary. Nervous and erratic. Nails bitten to the quick. Kept saying he could not concentrate. Had evidently had that idea impressed upon him and seemed rather proud of it. His mother told teacher and examiner same thing. Nervous habit of pushing hair back from face. Spoke frequently of woman he had seen in an epileptic fit and seemed to be worried by it. Home conditions should be good as parents have plenty of leisure to look after him and seem to be good citizens, more than moderately well off. Boy is allowed to go about where he pleases and is often alone in public places late at night. Kept up late at home, as parents have a great deal of company at night. Mother says she prays with boy



every morning before he starts to school and that she has implicit faith in prayer. Work in school hopeless. Aggravates teachers by conduct in class and by adding notes to themes, such as "There, thank God, that's finished." Boy is in danger of becoming mentally unbalanced, perhaps a case of dementia præcox.

13. Age 11-7. Mental age 12-3. Binet I.Q. 1.06.

Tested by Mr. Cowdery in sixth grade in 1917. Has been a troublesome problem in class ever since he started to school. Was in high school a short time where he bothered teachers with loud, talking impudent answers, laziness and general incorrigibility. Was suspended frequently and finally expelled before the end of the freshman year. Y. M. C. A. leader has been trying to help him for some time, but he does not seem to respond as he does not mix well with other boys. Mother, a former teacher, seems to have no control over boy. Father died very recently in hospital for insane.

14. Age 8-1. Binet mental age 7-9. I.Q. .95.

Was tested just after he had been interviewed for a cigarette smoking episode but seemed to be calm and undisturbed. School work poor. Bad conduct in yard. Fights and bullies other children. Health seems good although he is said to smoke innumerable cigarettes. General "rough neck." Parents seem willing to cooperate with teachers. Mother says her punishment does him no good. Boy an inseparable friend of Case 4. Home is not homelike, is plain, bare and unattractive. Mother works away from home all day. Children left to their own devices. Neighbors report children immoral. Neighborhood poor.

15. Age 13-6. Otis mental age 8-9. I.Q. .66.

Terman mental age 11-3. I.Q. .84.

In lowest section of low seventh grade. School work generally of poor quality. Eleven points below standard in Kansas Silent Reading. Satisfactory in Starch Arithmetic. Troublesome in class and difficult to interest. Physical condition apparently good. Decided symptoms of future lawlessness unless curbed by special supervision. Evidently a borderline or low dull-normal case.

16. Age 13-2. Group mental age 12-0. I.Q. .91.

Age 12-11. Binet mental age 11-6. I.Q. .89.

Unsatisfactory work in sixth grade. Has ten year vocabulary. Comprehension good. Came from fifth grade with reputation for

stealing. Stubborn, cheats in school work. Troublesome in class. Father is a truck driver, has been ill for some time. Mother wrote note to teachers saying she had reasoned with boy and whipped him. Told principal to whip him "to a finish" and if that did no good, she would turn him over to the probation officer as she was at the point of desperation. Boy is attractive physically, has smiling, good natured face and is well built. Man who is his "big brother" is pleased with him and has given him a job in his place of business. He is also paying Boy Scout dues for boy. Boy should come out all right if given proper attention.

17. (Mexican) Age 15-0. Otis mental age 10-0. I.Q. .67.

Terman mental age 11-7. I.Q. .78.

About average intelligence for a Mexican peon. Poor in school work and insubordinate in class. Makes remarks of low moral tone to teachers and seems to enjoy exposing as much of his body as possible in track suit, when near girls. Chronic truant. Poor home. Boy good to mother. Large, extremely well built boy. Excellent health. Father wanted him kept out to work but made continual trouble for truant officer. Mother works in canneries. Work secured for boy in beet fields, as school work seemed so distasteful to him and his family and was apparently a waste of time. Seems to be making good in work. Will probably equal average Mexican.

18. Age 12-0. Binet mental age 10-5. I.Q. .87.

Does fairly well in school work, especially Arithmetic. Average score in silent reading. Lazy, truant frequently. Ran away with boy to beach and stayed overnight. Teases and hurts other boys on playground. Does not play normally. Has one idiot sister who is not kept at home. One sister ran away from home with married man. Two brothers have been before the court for theft. One has made good since then, the other is a worthless fellow around town. Mother is minister's daughter, has very weak disposition and seems to realize her weakness and that of her family. Father is well educated man, a civil engineer from Harvard. Family says they once had plenty of money. Home is simply furnished with good plain substantial furniture. Boy is evidently feeble-minded in some ways or is mentally unbalanced. Outlook poor as he seems to have very weak character and poor home supervision.

19. Age 14-4. Binet mental age 8-7. I.Q. .60.

Answers in test of poor quality, vocabulary less than eight years.



Seemed impossible to concentrate during test. Restless. Tall, thin, dirty and untidy. Colorless and under-nourished. School work poor in fifth grade. Troublesome in class and on school grounds until transferred to special room at the central school. Has had different attitude toward work since then. Does very fair work in manual training and seems to have some mechanical ability. Plays well with other boys on school grounds and seems to be a leader in many of the games. Home supervision poor. Father highly excitable Italian, who expresses his opinion of any school restrictions very freely.

20. Age uncertain, possibly 9 or 10. Binet mental age 6-4.

21. Age uncertain, possibly 7 or 8. Binet mental age 6-4.

Brothers. Had no idea of age and didn't know what school they were in. Came from South Carolina via Texas in a Ford with father and older brother, whose intelligence was even lower than these boys. Mother died and father remarried a feeble-minded woman with several feeble-minded children. They separated and the father with his three boys were living with grandparents of the boys in a dirty hole with no air, as bad as the worst Mexican home in Santa Ana. Lice and bedbugs abundant. Children filthy dirty and very scantily clothed. Very immoral. Undernourished. Failure in school work. Couldn't write names but seemed anxious to learn. Father one of most profane men possible. Threatens boys with oaths that "he'd cut their livers out" if they didn't act decent. Family always on mourner's bench at revivals. Typical poor white trash with no future. Institutional cases.

22. Age 14-10. Binet mental age 9-1. I.Q. .61.

Failure in third grade school work. Test showed general poor quality of intelligence, especially in vocabulary. Placed in special room. Nervous and irritable. Tendency to be morose. Difficulty in understanding instructions. Tall and thin. Exceptionally small head. Weak and easily led. Poor home supervision. Mother of low intelligence. Boy loafs on street frequently. Was recently arrested on suspicion of burglary on account of loafing near place of burglary, but was proved innocent. No future unless under supervision. Institutional case.

23. 13-6. Binet mental age 5-0. I.Q. .37.

Imbecile, utterly incapable of school work. Passed all three year tests and failed on all in year VII. Not troublesome until nearly fifteen years of age, when he began to annoy little girls on their

way to school. Was not allowed in school remainder of year but given another trial, the following year. Proved incorrigible after few months trial. Mother seems fond of boy and will not admit his lack of intelligence. Will not consider placing him in institution. Uncle realizes real condition and has tried to induce mother to send him to Sonoma. One sister a trained nurse. Home neat and well furnished. Mothers of neighborhood worried for fear he may commit some serious crime, for which he will be utterly irresponsible.

24. Age 12-0. *Bine* mental age 9-3. I.Q. .77.

Tested in fifth grade where he was doing poor work. Because incorrigible in class in sixth grade and was placed in special room. Secured him a job in garage for half time, where he is doing satisfactory work. Conduct in school now excellent. Very slow and phlegmatic during tests. Let flies crawl over face and hands with no attempt to brush them off. Sense of feeling evidently very dull. Physically well built and healthy. Eight children in family, mother interested in children and keeps them and home neat and clean. She works in cannery. Father an auto painter, who also seems interested in children. Did not want boy to work half day until convinced it was best for him. Boy likes ranch life and would make good farmer's assistant. Will probably make good in garage or on ranch, but is in danger of becoming delinquent.

25. Age 11-6. *Binet* mental age 11-6. I.Q. 1.00. *Group* mental age 10-8. I.Q. .92.

Passed vocabulary and fables at XII and facts at XIV. Slightly timid at first of test but self-confidence grew. Teachers reported him as being in state of mental obliquity, sly, sneaking and general loafer. Doesn't play with others. Takes reproof negatively, as not being applicable to him. Large scar on forehead, fell and hit head on glass less than year ago. Has milk route and mows lawns. Wants to be railroad engineer. Future hopeful as boy has average intelligence and some ambition.

26. Age 10-11. *Binet* mental age 10-6. I.Q. .97.

Irregular in school work. Very unruly. Stubborn, disobedient and impudent. Encouraged by mother not to take anything "off the teacher." Does only what he is absolutely forced to do. Beyond control of mother. Father was killed while working in oil field. Was expert "shooter" who made \$450 per month. Boy born



in Coalinga and spent several years among oil men. Helped father at wells, he said. Physically fit. Boy should have possibilities if placed in different environment. His undisciplined life with rough oil men has probably had its part in making him what he is.

27. *Age 11-0. Mental age 8-9. I.Q. .80.*

Very pleasant attitude during test. In sixty word test gave "watch-case, revolver, rifle, scabbard, case for revolver." Stole cartridges from store, tore every package open but seemed to have no special use for them. Had just had talk with sheriff in which he assured him he was a good boy now and wouldn't be in his office again. The sheriff had barely reached his office after leaving boy on street when a telephone message notified him that boy had just been stealing again. Mother takes attitude that the world owes them a living and they are taking it. Has several brothers and sisters who are always dirty and have some skin disease continually. Serious eye trouble common among children. Home conditions poor. Has one very immoral sister. Mother encourages children in misconduct generally. Family expects to pit apricots during season. Social outlook poor, as boy has low intelligence, low vitality and poor home conditions.

28. *Age 7-10. Mental age 5-11. I.Q. .74*

Listless during test, yet seemed to do his best. Had forgotten his age. Passed year VIII comprehension. In school work a failure. Almost impossible to keep in school as mother will not send children if she can evade attendance officer. Family moves frequently and is difficult to trace. Mother slovenly and keeps the filthiest home imaginable. Yard used indiscriminately as toilet. Father described as weak "wishy-washy" individual, a sworn enemy of work. Older sisters are said to sit at window most of the time trying to attract passing men. Feeble-minded family all in need of institutional supervision.

29. *Age 15-9. Binet mental Age 11-7. I.Q. .72. Otis I.Q. .63. Terman I.Q. 70.*

Generally poor in all school work in slowest sections of high seventh grade. Below standard in pedagogical tests. Teachers, estimates of intelligence, very inferior. Choleric temperment. Physically undersized, thin, muddy complexioned, unclean appearance. Has been troublesome all through the grades. Very sensitive. Constantly in trouble with some teacher. Frequent truant.

Will leave school in the middle of a session if the teacher chances to offend him. Mother encourages him in incorrigibility. She seems of moron intelligence. Mother and boy dishwashers in cafeteria. Father dead and mother separated from second husband. Boy is feeble-minded and should be placed in an institution.

30. Age 7-0. Binet mental age 5-10. I.Q. .83.

Very poor school work in first grade. Seemed bright and interested in test. Physically in good condition. Troublesome in class. Does not take suggestions easily. Stubborn. Fights other boys and girls on playground. Bit second grade girl on the arm. Home conditions in this case have not been investigated, but home supervision is evidently needed as boy is left to himself a great deal outside of school hours.

31. Age 13-6. Binet mental Age 11-1. I.Q. .82.

Otis mental Age 12-3. I.Q. .91.

Terman mental Age 12-2. I.Q. .91.

Illinois mental Age 9-10. I.Q. .74.

Erratic in school work. Some days, seems to do average work and on others absolutely fails to accomplish anything. Large rather fleshy boy, always moving some part of body. Has given trouble in school since kindergarten days. Incorrigible and impudent to teachers. Has done a great deal of petty thieving such as stealing papers and reselling them. Is dishonest in dealings where he thinks he will not be detected. Does not mix well with other boys as he does little underhanded things to them that they will not tolerate. Maternal family ancestry apparently good. Paternal, dubious. Home supervision poor as boy is allowed to run streets as he pleases. Needs very close supervision as he is in serious danger of committing some crime. Is probably of dull-normal intelligence.

32. Age 15-0. Otis Mental Age 10-9. Otis I.Q. .72.

Terman mental Age 13-8. Terman I.Q. .92.

Poor school work in the slowest section of the high seventh grade. Teachers estimate of intelligence, very inferior. Average in Kansas silent reading test. Six points below standard in Starch arithmetic. Physical condition apparently poor. Pale and anaemic. Constant smoker of cigarettes. Has been before the court for stealing. Was in court recently for truancy. Broke into one of the school buildings the first of the year. Home supervision poor. Mother a spiritual-



ist who does not seem especially interested in boy. Boy is frequently seen with girls of apparently low moral caliber. Boy needs change of environment with adequate supervision.

33. *Age 5-9. Terman mental age 11-9. I.Q. .75.*

School work average for slowest section of low seventh grade. Probably of borderline or high grade moron intelligence. Physical condition rather below average. Phlegmatic temperment. Troublesome in classroom. Frequent truant. Poor home supervision. Case requires additional investigation.

34. *Age 14-6. Otis mental age 15-9. I.Q. 1.08.*

School work has always been satisfactory until very recently. Conduct in school has been excellent. Physically attractive, well built and healthy appearance. Recently broke into science laboratory with another boy and stole equipment for private laboratory. Taken to probation officer who gave them another chance on condition that parents promise that boys not be allowed out at night for a given time. Lied constantly to officers. Parents seem to be interested in helping boy but supervision has been unsuccessful. Boy seems ambitious. Says he is going to college and plans a professional career. Will probably succeed, although his weak will may get him into serious trouble.

35. *Age 15-9. Otis mental age 14-2. I.Q. .90.*

Has been a frequent repeater throughout the grades. Has been considered unreliable by most of his teachers. Just entered high school. Thin nervous boy with tendency to nomadism. Runs away frequently to be gone several days. Stole drawing outfit and sold it to junk man for two dollars. Thought to have stolen other things but not proved. Boy is one of a family of eleven in very poor circumstances, financially. Works in store after school hours. Will probably improve with proper supervision.

36. *Age 6-0. Binet mental age 4-0. I. Q. .66.*

Extremely poor performance on Vineland form-board. Seemed to have no sense of form discrimination and fitted blocks by accident. Made a scrawl when undertaking to copy square. Poor motor coordination mentioned by teachers. Was tested first in kindergarten, then boy moved from town. Reappeared next year in another school and teachers immediately asked for an examination. Three weeks later the family moved again. The following year the family

returned and lived in still another district. Feeble-mindedness of boy impressed teachers at once. No sense of discipline in school. Wanders around room at will. Failure in school work. Home dirty and ill-kept. Numerous children of about the same intelligence as boy. Mother seemed of middle grade moron type. Other relatives of apparent moron intelligence. Boy should be in institution.

37. *Age 12-1. Mental age 10-0. I. Q. .83.*

Poor work in second grade at twelve years of age. Had only been in school a short time as he had recently come to this country. Eyes only one-half normal vision. Very talkative during test. Passed only eight year vocabulary but accustomed to different language. Seemed at first acquaintance much brighter than test indicated. Would easily pass as normal but made no progress in school work. Very troublesome and erratic in school. Talks at all times. Mother in sanitorium for mental trouble. Parents of English speaking race. Boy sent to States to be educated. Supervision attempted by friends of family. Boy may succeed in some occupation where high intelligence is not necessary. Is likeable and makes friends. Part of nervousness probably due to vision which will be corrected.

38. *Age 12-4. Binet mental age 10-0. I. Q. .81.*

Fair school work in fifth grade. Very slow in learning but a plodder. Undersized for age but seems healthy. Adopted from institution. When first adopted, made a great deal of trouble by petty thieving at school and by use of profane language on school grounds. Has made no trouble recently. Foster parent intensely interested in boy, who is very fond of her. Seems to be rather easily controlled through his affections. Is quick tempered but easily convinced that he is wrong. Too easily influenced and likely to be led by others whom he may trust, to commit some minor offense. Will probably make a good man if under good influences.

39. *Age 12-9. Binet mental age 10-6. I. Q. .83.*

Interested throughout test and tried to do his best. Poor school work. Nervous but repressed much of the time. Slender underdeveloped boy, troubled with indigestion. Has attacks of acute indigestion immediately preceding period of nomadism. Runs away for days at a time. Mother shields boy and says he has merely gone to friends for a few days. Parents have had boy to physician to see whether he can be cured of nomadic tendency. Parents seem of dull-normal or low average intelligence. Had brother in high school, who



did poorly and left in freshman year to work. Family move frequently, evidently are nomadic. Boy will probably never be responsible citizen. May drift into "hoboism."

40. Age 12-0. Binet mental age 9-8. I. Q. .81.

Poor work in the fifth grade. About one-fifth normal vision with glasses. Physical condition poor. Choleric when crossed in wishes. Teachers fear he may hurt some child severely in one of his fits of rage. Mother says she has the responsibility of training him and she seems to do her best, although says she is powerless against his temper. Objects strenuously to boy being placed in special room although learning little where he is. Says he will be blind soon and forces him to spend all the time possible in reading. Boy seems to be under constant strain. Home above average. Father a successful business man. Boy has a younger feeble-minded brother in the special room. Boy is evidently a borderline case, who should be placed in the blind asylum for a time instead of using up what sight he has. He is closely but unwisely supervised by an over anxious mother.

#### GIRLS. CASES 41 TO 50.

41. Age 14-0. Otis mental age 17-3. I.Q. 1.23. Terman mental age 13-5. I. Q. 96.

Poor school work in average section of low eighth grade. At standard in Kansas silent reading test. Large, well developed, and fine looking. Perfect health. Seems to lack power of concentration. Reported as "boy struck" to a dangerous degree. Out late at night in parks or on streets. Father and mother said to have separated but live in the same house. Mother upholds girl whenever father tries to correct her. Girl may make a good citizen if happily married and in a complete change of environment.

42. Age 12-6. Otis mental age 11-0. I. Q. .88. Terman mental age 12-8. I. Q. 1.02.

Poor school work in slow section of low seventh grade. Undersized. Needs moral supervision. Special friend of Cases 44 and 45 with whom she frequently played truant. Older brother stopped friendships. Home conditions poor. Large family. Mother and daughter use profane language. House extremely untidy. Girl can be influenced in right direction if any one shows an interest in her. Responds to kindness quickly.

43. Age 14-7. Terman mental age 11-0. I. Q. .85.

Poor school work in high seventh grade. Good health. Nice appearance. Attractive. Constantly on streets after school and in bad company. Attitude sullen and morose when corrected. Refuses to speak to mother for days at a time. Girl stole money from grandfather's till to buy thrift stamps. Stole hat when in lower grade school. Staid away from home two days without permission. Placed in detention home for a time at request of mother and is at present a ward of the court. Parents separated. Outlook for girl is poor as she has low intelligence, poor application, is over sexed, weak willed and attractive.

44. Age 17-0. Binet mental age 9-6. I. Q. .59.

45. Age 17-0. Binet mental age 9-7. I. Q. .60.

Twin sisters. Poor school work in fifth grade. Placed in special room. Do fairly well in hand work but not specially interested in anything. Troublesome in school room and noisy on street. One twin large and decidedly attractive in appearance, the other small, thin and repulsive, said to have had infantile Paralysis. Looks like low grade feeble-minded. Larger girl the leader of the two and apparently a leader of several other girls. Wrote obscene sentences on the board when teacher left room. Introduced low moral atmosphere into whole room and was sent to high school for part time work, where they remained a few days only. Girls announced in school that they had been out until three in the morning with sailors at one of the beaches. Upon investigation, mother denied this and said the girls had not left home that night. Home influences bad. Mother ill and girls work out most of the time. Father a common laborer. Both girls belong in an institution for feeble-minded.

46. Age 9-9. Mental age 8-0. I. Q. .82.

Poor school work in third grade. Very large for age. Rather fleshy skin, scaly and repulsive. Family subject to constant skin eruptions of various kinds. Girl said she had had yellow chicken pox, small-pox and pneumonia. Had just recovered from several weeks of itch. Sister of Case 27. Home conditions described fully under Case 27. Outlook for child poor as all data show poor intelligence, poorly supervised. Girl has choleric temperament, is untruthful and a petty thief.



47. *Age 17-0. Mental age 5-8. I. Q. .35.*

A case of definite feeble-mindedness, low grade and easily diagnosed as such. Quality of work done in test exceptionally poor. Absolutely incapable of first grade work. Would lose her way from one room to another and could not find her way home alone. Placed in special room, where she did work of poorer quality than a six year old and enjoyed playing house with the little ones at recess. Was kept in a special room two years and then excluded from school as she was beginning to show immoral tendencies. Docile and easily led. Extremely affectionate and demonstrative. Would try to do anything anyone told her to do. A real menace to society. Should be kept permanently in an institution.

48. *Age 12-7. Binet mental age 10-6. I. Q. .80.*

Was tested in fifth grade when repeating the grade and doing very unsatisfactory work. Moved from town and reappeared a year later in low seventh grade with promotion card from one of the country districts. Stocky, short, heavy set. Given to extreme use of rouge and lip stick. Needs moral supervision very badly. Sister of Case 28. Encouraged by family to attract men by flirting with them as they pass the house. Home conditions more fully described under Case 28. Girl has poor hearing. No other noticeable physical defects. Family is probably feeble-minded. Sterilization or segregation should be applied to the members of the family.

49. *Age 11-2. Binet mental age 10-7. I. Q. .94.*

Mexican of better class. Does fair school work in fourth grade. Attractive bright appearance. Speech defect. Ambidextrous. Apparently in good health. Has stolen several times but has taken things which she does not especially want and which her parents would buy her for the asking. Says she does not know why she takes things, she just sees them and picks them up. Is perfectly willing to return things and is sorry she took them. Doubtful whether she realizes what she has done and what "sorry" means. Promises she will not steal again but can not keep promise. Has a keen imagination as shown by interpretation of pictures in Binet test. Gave detailed history of all that might have happened or could possibly happen to the people or things represented in pictures. Parents feel keenly the child's delinquency and are willing to cooperate in any way suggested. The child is evidently a kleptomaniac and not respon-

sible. The cause may be a mental conflict caused by some unrecognized repression.

50. Age 8-5. Mental age 6-6. 1. Q. .77.

Very inferior school work in first grade. Placed in special room until family moved to a district where no such room was available. Thin undernourished, dirty child. Repulsive appearance. Very bad morally. Every school was glad to be rid of her whenever the family moved, as she had to be watched continually. Home conditions bad. Family high grade morons and related to two other families of same or lower intelligence. The children of these families would provide material for a special room by themselves. Another group where entire family should be sterilized or segregated.



# THE RELATION OF THE CONDUCT DIFFICULTIES OF A GROUP OF PUBLIC SCHOOL BOYS TO THEIR MENTAL STATUS AND HOME ENVIRONMENT

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## I. MENTAL STATUS AND CONDUCT

### DISCUSSION OF PROBLEM

There are two methods of classification officially recognized in the schools; one is based on chronological age, is more or less automatic and is carried on through a series of educational tests—sometimes called “examinations”—prepared by the school staff or their supervisors. By means of this method the children progress from grade to grade. Its inadequacy seems to be proved by the large amount of repetition of grades and of retardation among elementary school children,—a condition of things extremely expensive financially to the school system and both mentally and morally to the children who suffer from it.

The second method is based on a series of intelligence tests, usually the Stanford-Binet, and on a medical examination, and is not applied automatically, as is the first method, but depends on the judgment of teachers and principal. By means of this method certain children falling below a specified level of intelligence are placed in a special or “ungraded” class, usually for the rest of their school life. Its inadequacy seems to be proved by the fact that many children who should receive this examination are not given it and when efforts have been made to make it more automatic there has often been the feeling that the right children were not selected for these classes. Intelligence tests do not appear to do their selecting on the basis of maladjustment to present school conditions, which is usually the basis on which the teacher’s judgment is very naturally formed. The result of a selection for special classes on the basis of group and individual tests alone is often that some children are taken from the regular grades who are happy and docile and who are profiting socially, if not mentally, by the contacts there and some children are left in these grades whose intelligence levels as determined by tests are high enough but whose social or emotional activities and judg-

ments are such that they cannot profit by the present school organization. A method is certainly inadequate which leaves teachers dissatisfied and children still failing. Such defects are clearly recognized by all who have to do with this method of classification and it is not at all the province of this study to show how the difficulties can be remedied even if the writer were able to accomplish so valuable a result.

#### SUBJECTS

Because the inadequacy of the first method of classification was so clearly recognized at Public School 11, Manhattan,—a school for boys,—a social worker who had had educational and psychiatric training was sent there from the department of ungraded classes to confer with the teachers regarding the boys who constituted class room problems and to use all possible methods to find out the reasons for so much backwardness in the school. While this study was going on, a series of group and intelligence tests was given the entire school and through these the inadequacy of the second method of classification, referred to above, was rather clearly defined. For although, out of a school population of about 1400, about 140 boys were referred by the teachers to the social worker because of difficulties in work or in conduct, a very small proportion of them were identical with the upwards of 50 boys who were selected, on the basis of the tests, as probable school problems.

The boys who were referred for difficulties in work alone were rather easily discovered to be weak either mentally or physically, and adjustments were not difficult. The boys referred for both work and conduct or for conduct alone, on the other hand, were far more puzzling and both medical and mental clinics and social service agencies were called on for assistance. It seemed proper, therefore, to choose as the subjects for this study the first 52 cases in conduct which were referred to me during the winter of 1919-1920 in my capacity as social worker from the department of ungraded classes. These boys, as I have said, were reported to me because, in the opinion of their teachers or of the principal, they constituted problems in conduct of a fairly unusual sort. They ranged in age from 8 to 16 years and were scattered through the grades from 2A to 8B. We are often told that delinquency is closely related to mental defect; only two of the boys referred were in the ungraded class, al-



though four others were sent there as a result of the examinations one for observation and only for a short time.

In order to arrive at a fairer conclusion as to the mental and social status of these boys and to judge, if possible, how pertinent to the questions of this study were their different intellectual and emotional characteristics, two control groups were selected from the school at large, one absolutely at random, which I shall refer to as Control Group A, the other at random except for the fact that the boys had never been in trouble during their school careers and were approximately of the same mental status as the original group. This will be referred to as Control Group B. The mental status was determined by means of the Pintner group test applied to the whole school by Dr. L. S. Hollingworth and students working under her direction, by individual Stanford-Binet tests given by these same workers, and at the department of ungraded classes and a few other mental clinics of this city.

## RESULTS

The intelligence quotients in the Conduct Group range from 55 to 117, that of Control Group A, from 64 to 136. The median for the first group is 83, that for the second is 92. When the Pintner group tests were given to the whole school, the median was found to lie between 85 and 95 instead of between 95 and 105, as in the normal distribution curve for schools throughout the country, showing that the school was skewed toward the lower end of the curve. Ninety-two seems, therefore, a fair result to get from a random selection. In the face of this median of 83, the same conclusions must be drawn for the boys who are problems in conduct as those arrived at by Miss Poull in her study of truants:

It will be found that the largest percentage of truants are neither belonging to the class now recognized as definitely defective nor to the class of average normality. But rather to this questionable group lying between these two classes ranging from the arbitrary line of 70 per cent at the lower end to the equally arbitrary line of 90 per cent at the upper end. It may be assumed that they have, added to a lack of intelligence which placed them at a definite disadvantage with their chronological compeers, an amount of insight that makes it impossible for them to rest content with the unsuitable school environment as do the more definitely defective children.

This conclusion applies quite startlingly to the conduct problem boys discussed here, with the addition of a single phrase,—besides a greater amount of insight than the *defective* group, there is equally

apparent a smaller amount of inhibition than the *normal* group. They belong to Dr. Davenport's "feebly inhibited" and a later discussion of their health and peculiarities of conduct should bring this out. This "insight" plus the lack of self-control makes them deal with the school environment while they are in it as the truants do, only the latter simply stay away while the former make life a burden for those around them, lacking perhaps the courage to stay away.

An effort was made to study the school history of these boys in a comparative way as well as the native intelligence. In the matter of over-age for grade, an important factor in school failure, all three groups were compared and the results one would expect were found. Tables I, II, and III show this.

This seems to show that besides the easily inferred relationship between mental deficiency and over-age, there is a relationship between over-age and conduct as well, for while there is a difference of 10 per cent between the group which has a lower level of intelligence but no conduct difficulty and the school at large, there is one of 35 per cent between the conduct group and the school at large.

The reason for over-age besides mental backwardness should be studied in order to make this a reliable indication, but it is not likely that these reason would differ much as among the three groups.

Dr. Miner found about the same proportion between the boys in the Farm School and the elementary school boys in Minneapolis,—that is, twice as much over-age in the case of the delinquent boys. He also warns us to use proper caution regarding late entrance and absence as causes for over-age other than delinquency, and then goes on to say:

To understand the significance of this comparison one should consider the relative difference which is shown between school children and delinquents in the statistics of health, defective sight, nose, and throat obstructions, etc. . . . Medical inspection shows that for other conditions than retardation the frequency of defects and disease found among representative groups of ordinary juvenile delinquents can often be equalled in the poorer schools of the city. To find a factor relatively twice as common among delinquents as among school children, when the frequencies are as great as with retardation, means a variation that is unquestionably significant. . . . It suggests the relative size of the two problems."

In the comparison of the health conditions in the two groups later in the study we shall again find similar conditions to those Dr. Miner cites.

Further study could well be made of comparative retardation as well as of the following factor of school failure, which also is valu-



TABLE I. AGE-GRADE. CONTROL A. RANDOM SELECTION.

Grades	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Ung.	Tot.
Ages	7	2							2
8									
9		4	3						7
10			3	2	1				6
11		1	2	3	4				10
12				1	7				8
13				2	1	3	5		11
14						4			4
15						1	1		2
16						1	1		2
Total		2	5	8	8	13	9	7	52
No. over age	0	1	2	3	1	6	2		15

TABLE II. CONTROL B. NON-CONDUCT

	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Ung.	Tot.
7	1								1
8			1						1
9		2	2						4
10		2	3						5
11		1	3	3	3			1	11
12				1	3				4
13			1	1	1	3	4		10
14					2	2	6		10
15						1	1		2
16					1	1	2		4
Tot.	1	5	10	5	10	7	13	1	52
Over age	0	3	4	2	4	4	3	0	20

TABLE III. CONDUCT GROUP

	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Ung.	Tot.
7									
8	2	1							3
9	2	1							3
10		3							3
11	1		4	4					9
12		1	3	3	2				10
13		1	1	4	2	2			10
14				2		3	3	2	10
15				1	1		1		3
16							1		1
Tot.	5	7	8	14	5	5	5	2	52
Over age	3	5	8	10	3	3	2	0	34

In Control A, there were 15 over-age boys, or 29 per cent

In Control B, there were 20 over-age boys, or 38 per cent

In the Conduct Group, 34 over-age boys, or 66 per cent

able only as it forms one of a number of indications: the number of schools attended up to this point in the boy's life.

The mothers of backward boys often comment on the fact that their boys have been put back in their studies as a result of changing schools and regret their own hastiness in changing for insufficient reasons. When the transfer is made in the same neighborhood it is almost always because of dissatisfaction, either on the part of the school with the boy's behavior or on the part of the parents with the way their boy is "getting along." He is "held back" unfairly, or "the teacher picks on him." The best indication of this attitude is the transfer back and forth from the various private schools. It is logical that this should happen most often to boys of inferior quality.

In the Conduct Group, 39 out of 52 boys, or 75 per cent, attended 95 schools, besides the one being studied. Control B, 30 out of 52 boys, or 57 per cent, attended 42 schools. It is not fair to compare this factor by groups as the numbers of boys in the different grades differ and a boy in the 7th grade has more time to change in than one in the 3rd grade. In order to show this, I took the average number of schools per boy in each group and plotted the distribution. The comparison of the curves is quite unfavorable to the Conduct Group. Because of the varying number of boys in the different age groups, this result seemed to need further checking, so I computed the average number of years which each boy had spent in one school and found that the median for the Conduct Group was  $2\frac{1}{2}$  to  $2\frac{3}{4}$  years in one school and that for Control Group B was from 3 to  $3\frac{1}{4}$  years in one school, which still shows the advantage on the side of the Non-Conduct Group.

A factor which would influence this condition as well as the retardation is the amount of moving about from place to place which the families of the different boys have done. This might seem to correct the findings, but it might also indicate instability of character or the sort of intelligence which was unable to find or keep a job. As has been said, the whole subject of school history might well be studied further. As for the private schools, that also registers somewhat vaguely a certain parental instability and almost always works for retardation. In the Conduct Group, 24 of the schools attended were private schools, in the Control, 8.

One very important element in the school history of any child is the number of grades he has repeated. This is closely associated



TABLE IV. CONDUCT GROUP

No. of schools	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	11
Age of boys 7								
8			1					1
9	2	1	1					4
10					1			1
11	1	2						3
12	2	5	1	3				11
13	6	2	2		1			11
14		1	2	2		2		8
15	1	2	4	3	2			12
16	1							1
	13	13	11	8	4	2		52

TABLE V. CONTROL B

No. of schools	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	11
Age of boys 7								
8	1							1
9	4	2					1	7
10	7	1		1				9
11	3	2	1			1		7
12		4	1					5
13	1	4		3				8
14	4	3	1		1			9
15	1		2	1				4
16			1					1
	22	16	6	5	1	1	1	52

In *No. of schools*, I mean the school now attended by the boys. Thirteen in the Conduct Group, 22 in the Control, have never been to any other school, that is, have never changed schools.

with over-age, but is not the same, for they need not exist simultaneously although the first is often the cause of the second. The difference between the conduct and the non-conduct groups are more marked in this than in any other feature of the whole study, as may be seen from Tables VI and VII. As in the over-age tables, two ages have been regarded as satisfactory for a grade. The two sets of tables differ somewhat as the estimating was done at different times in the year. The times are consistent, however, for the contrasted groups. Only 9 boys, or 17 per cent, out of the Conduct Group did not repeat grades, leaving 83 per cent who did. In the Non-conduct Group, or Control B, who, it must be borne in mind, are of approximately the same mental level as the Conduct Group, 25 boys, or 48 per cent, repeated no grade, leaving 27, or 52 per cent, who did.

TABLE VI. CONDUCT

No. of grades rep.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ages of boys	8		1					1
	9	1	2	1				4
	10			1				1
	11		1	2				3
	12		3	2	4	1	1	11
	13	4	3	1	3			11
	14		1	1	4	0	1	8
	15	4	1	3	2	1	0	12
	16			1				1
		9	11	12	14	2	2	2
								52

TABLE VII. CONTROL B

No. of grades rep.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ages of boys	7	1						1
	8	1						1
	9	5	1	1				7
	10	7		1	1			9
	11	0	3	1	2	1		7
	12	5						5
	13	5	1	2				8
	14		1	4	2	2		9
	15	1			1	2		4
	16						1	1
		25	6	9	6	5	1	52

Number of times grades are repeated is a more important fact than simply being "left back," and we see from the tables that in the Conduct Group two boys repeated 6 grades each and two repeated 5; in fact, except for the column under 4 grades, the record is worse all the way along than in the control.

It is hard to distinguish in this matter between cause and effect. A boy may have been left back in the first instance because his conduct affected his school work. It is fairly certain that after one or two repetitions of grade the fact of being "left back" would be very sure to affect his conduct.

We can say, therefore, that according to available measurements the 52 boys reported for conduct were on the average dull-normal or borderline as compared with the school at large, and as compared with boys of the same mental status whose conduct was good, their school histories were distinctly unfavorable.

I have recorded also the grades repeated and the studies in which



these boys were especially deficient, but they do not throw any additional light without further control groups.

## II. ENVIRONMENT AND CONDUCT

### DISCUSSION OF PREVIOUS STUDIES

Many studies have been made of crime and delinquency which refer to juvenile delinquents or are altogether concerned with them and which take account of their early environment. Most of these studies begin after the criminal career is well under way and work back, discovering through the offender's own testimony or other means of investigation what the childhood surroundings and school life were. Dr. Healy, in *The Individual Delinquent*, quotes one of the earliest of these, an English writer, who says, "It is an ascertained fact that there is scarcely an habitual criminal in the County of Staffordshire who has not been imprisoned as a child." And many others bear witness to the important place a study of conditions during childhood might have had in the lives of most criminals. There are later studies which are directly concerned with children, but only after they are well started as delinquents through arrest, being brought before the court and often a short or a long sojourn in farm school or Protectory. One of these studies which pays special attention to an inquiry into home conditions is *The Delinquent Child and the Home*, a study of the work of the juvenile court of Chicago by Breckinridge and Abbott. Some of the headings in the environment series of this paper were borrowed from the titles used by them to designate groups of offenders.

### DISCUSSION OF PROBLEM

Influenced probably by the errors in subjective judgment regarding children's mental equipment referred to in the first part of this paper, I have tried to arrange a series of objective headings by names of which the conditions of the subjects with regard to conduct, health, and environment might be estimated. This was done in order to avoid if possible individual opinions as to conduct and to make testimony given by different persons on home and health more reliable

than their various subjective judgment would be. The class room maladjustment of some boys and not of others on the same intelligence levels has made many students wonder,—what then is the difficulty? Can it be measured as intelligence can? of what use are intelligence quotients without such additional knowledge?—which of course takes us back at once to the dissatisfaction with this method of classification expressed in the discussion of our first question. “Another factor in mental life must be tested besides intelligence before we can reach a fair estimate of the individual’s power to adjust.”<sup>1</sup>

“The power to awaken inhibiting ideas and to keep such thoughts in the foreground of consciousness so that they may become effective,” is a power truly characteristic of mental life,”<sup>2</sup> and if this is true it should be possible to estimate the presence or absence of such ideas.

The series of headings presented here are not designed as tests or measuring rods but as indications of tendencies only; as lists of symptoms, if such they proved to be. An effort was made to make them of such a sort that comparison of groups in respect to their presence or absence would be easy. Although this study does not deal with health and there were no facilities available to get thorough examination of all the boys, as complete a series of items as possible was included in order to see if there were any striking contrasts between the two groups under consideration and so help to meet Dr. Williams’ challenge as to the good brothers and sisters of so-called bad boys.

The items on conduct were decided on after consultation with the principal of the school, the teachers of some of the most troublesome boys and the psychologist at the department of ungraded classes. In all the series, letters were used to designate the headings for convenience in making tables.

The headings for environment were taken partly from *The Delinquent Child and the Home*, already referred to, partly they described conditions which had been found in many of the homes already visited. Because of the importance given to the broken homes by many social workers, the three items,—Death of Father, Death of Mother, and Separation of Parents,—were weighed, counting in the correlation tables 2 each, whereas the other items all count 1. Any other weightings, either in conduct or environment, seemed to bring

<sup>1</sup>L. E. Poull: *Ungraded*, Nov., 1919.

<sup>2</sup>Augusta F. Bronner: *Special Abilities and Disabilities*.



in the subjective element which it was hoped could be dispensed with. Who shall say that truancy is more or less important than constantly-bearing-grudges or bullying-younger-boys? There are many emotional implications in these conduct and environment headings. It is not the province of this paper to discuss them, although such discussion would have a most important bearing on the conclusions as to the beginning of delinquency. Perhaps that can be done later. The headings for health were taken from the school records made by the board of health, the statements in the outside examinations of a few boys in both groups and statements of the mothers. No conclusions could be drawn from the health findings alone; they are useful only in combination with the other factors which go to make up the picture.

#### Conduct

- a. Angry outbursts; violent temper
- b. Insolence to parents or teachers
- c. Constant disobedience or rebellious attitude
- d. Shirking work
- e. Constantly playful or inattentive behavior in class
- f. Bully
- g. Nagging, scrapping with other boys
- h. Bears grudges, sulks
- i. Blames others, coward
- j. Runs away
- k. Occasional truant
- l. Constant truant
- m. Lies, untrustworthy
- n. Constant liar
- o. Steals occasionally
- p. Constant thieving
- q. Gangster
- r. Inveterate smoker
- s. Movie habit
- t. Bad sex habits

These terms are only applied where the occurrence is so frequent as to amount almost to a "type."

## Home environment

- a. Father dead
- b. " irregular worker
- c. " immigrant, no English
- d. " alcoholic
- e. " immoral, degraded
- f. " harsh, cruel, brutal
- g. " mentally defective, psychopathic
- h. " chronic invalid
- i. Mother dead
- j. " works
- k. " immigrant, no English
- l. " alcoholic
- m. " immoral, degraded
- n. " harsh, cruel, brutal
- o. " mentally defective, psychopathic
- p. " chronic invalid
- q. Parents quarrel
- r. " separated
- s. Unsympathic stepfather
- t. Boy lives with grandmother or aunt
- u. Boy boarded out
- v. Home poor
- w. Neighborhood poor

Under *t* I have included cases where the grandmother lives with the family and controls the situation, indulging the boy unduly.

Under *v* I have considered a low mark in any of the characteristics named in the Whittier Scale for Grading Homes as a mark against the heading. The neighborhood is marked as *poor* if it is so regarded by social agencies in the district. *Poor* in this case means unsanitary, disorderly, or unusually rough.

## Health

- a. Defective teeth
- b. Defective vision
- c. Defective hearing
- d. Adenoids, bad nasal conditions
- e. Tonsils, bad throat conditions
- f. Weak lungs
- g. Weak heart
- h. Malnutrition, anaemia
- i. Neurological defect; "Nervousness"
- j. Other physical defect (includes skin disease, stomach trouble, fallen arches, kidney trouble, etc.)
- k. Frequent illnesses, constitutional weakness.



## SUBJECTS

To estimate the influence which environment may have on behaviour, the group of problem boys was compared with the Control Group B. Something should be said, I think, about the neighborhood in which these boys all live and the various nationalities represented.

This is done in order to describe the subjects of this study more vividly and give as complete a picture of the environment as possible, not in order to get from these facts any statements of statistical value. Many more control groups would be necessary in order to do this.

There was a brief description of the neighborhood in *School* for April 3, 1919, from which I quote:

The story of the public school 11, Manhattan, is a battle of a school with its environments. No. 11 is West 17th Street between Eighth and Ninth Avenues, a poor neighborhood, of small shops and cheap tenement houses, where many long-shoremen and other manual workers live. There is also a "tough" element which continually gives the school trouble. . . . While there are many honest parents connected with the school, there are others who look on the school as a place where they can get rid of the boys for the greater part of the day. Unfortunately there are some fathers and mothers who are hard drinkers and are indifferent to the welfare of their children. The home life of some of the boys can be easily imagined.

This is a dark picture, but in reality there are bright spots. Seventh and Eighth Avenues are broad and there is a progressive spirit in some of the business and manufacturing concerns, nearby. There are some very pleasant residence streets in the district and a few good apartment houses. There are only two blocks which could be called disorderly in the accepted sense and those are not near the school. On the other hand, the street cleaning department speaks of the block on which the school stands as one of the hardest it has to deal with because of the refuse flung from the windows of the tenements there. The nearest settlements are ten or eleven blocks away and also the nearest parks or playgrounds. There are churches and a few clubs nearer by but no general places for healthful recreation. The moving picture houses appear dingier than ordinary and their proper supervision seems much open to question. The school building is about 80 years old; there is no school playground, only a basement and the most minute of yards. It goes without saying, considering the age of the building, that there is only one small shop, no adequate assembly room for neighborhood entertainments, and no gymnasium. In spite of these lacks, the school makes up for some of the neighborhood deficiencies to a surprising degree. In study-

ing the results of the comparison of groups, we have to keep in mind the general conditions to which all the boys are subjected. It makes the material aspects of the homes less important as indicators than some other less obvious facts. Otherwise we should have to think of all the boys who attend the school as potential delinquents and that is even farther from being true than that all the boys whose intelligence quotients are below 70 are a "menace," which we have ceased to believe.

As to nationality, the only thing indicated by the great variety is the increased number of problems which the school must solve and perhaps the greater difficulty the boys must face in order to succeed. We cannot be sure of that. In December, 1920, a census was taken in the school of the nativity of the children, with the following results:

Argentina	1	Hungary	4
Armenia	4	Ireland	73
Austria	27	Italy	167
Belgium	10	Lithuania	1
Bohemia	1	Poland	9
Canada	1	Porto Rico	7
China	2	Rumania	2
England	16	Russia	54
France	8	Scandinavia	16
Germany	34	Spain	15
Greece	32	Switzerland	2
Holland	4	United States	418
			<hr/> 908

The two groups show some differences; there are fewer nationalities represented in the Conduct Group than in the Control, but the figures will not be given as no inferences from them would be valid without further study of groups in other places. The facts as given only add one more problem to the environment. A further addition can be made to the picture by the listing of occupations. Comparison of the two groups was possible through the use of the scale referred to latter. The conclusions will be given under *results*.

#### RESULTS

In order to compare the Conduct Group with Control Group in *Environment* and *Health*, curves were plotted and the frequencies of the different items estimated.



Environment

FREQUENCIES. CONDUCT GROUP AND CONTROL B.

	Cond. Gr.	Control		Cond. Gr.	Control
a.	26	17	m.	3.8	0
b.	23	19	n.	15	0
c.	11	3.8	o.	3.8	0
d.	11	0	p.	25	13
e.	3.8	1.9	q.	11	0
f.	5.7	1.9	r.	5.7	3.8
g.	5.7	0	s.	3.8	3.8
h.	9	9	t.	13	1.9
i.	5.7	1.9	u.	1.9	0
j.	36	26	v.	73	59
k.	17	13	w.	50	57
l.	5.7	0			

It is interesting to see how closely the two curves keep together. We can rule out at once the second item,—father an irregular worker,—and the last two,—poor home and poor neighborhood,—as showing any relationship between delinquency and environment. They are very nearly as apt to accompany the non-delinquent as the delinquent group in that neighborhood. It is the same with working mothers,—j,—but a difference does not exist in the type of employment, as will be pointed out later. The real differences are shown when it comes to the points relating to the character of the parents. Moral or immoral, drunken or sober, unduly severe or kindly, there is a marked variation here. If we isolate those headings,—d—e—f—g—l—m—n—o—,—we select the conditions which make most definitely for lack of supervision and home training. We could add on the last account,—q and t,—where home training is either not given or sadly interfered with, and we have the points it seems fair to consider as making for or usually accompany delinquency. Each boy has an average of 4.2 points against him in environment in the Conduct Group and of 2.3 points in the Control Group.

Occupations of parents might be supposed to affect environment, so the various occupations were listed. There is supposed to be a high correlation, however, between occupations and intelligence, and if that is the case we should expect to find the grade of occupations for fathers in the Conduct Group and Control Group B very much the same. I used the Barr scale of occupations to determine this. Several occupations not listed in the scale were very hard to evaluate,

and even more puzzling than this, there was a real difference in value within certain groups, the advantage nearly always being on the side of the Control Group.

There is no opportunity for grading the occupations of the mothers I have listed them and drawn the only conclusion which seems to be of importance, whether or not they work away from their homes.<sup>1</sup> It is apparent from the kind of occupation listed that the grade of the Control Group is on the whole higher than that of the Conduct Group.

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<sup>1</sup>See Table X.



TABLE VIII

Conduct Group

1	Trucking business—owner.....	11.76
1	Laundryman ".....	11.76
1	Butcher ".....	11.76
1	Grocer ".....	11.76
1	Manager shipping dept.....	11.49
1	Contractor's foreman.....	11.49
1	Foreman, gas Co.....	11.49
1	Salesman, Italian store.....	10.74
1	Shipping clerk.....	10.74
1	Business agt., Teamster's Union.....	10.38
1	Traveling salesman.....	10.38
1	Mechanic.....	9.42
1	Machinist.....	9.42
2	Tailor.....	8.75
1	Furrier.....	8.75
1	Lays tile floors.....	8.22
1	Street-car conductor.....	7.83
1	Cook in restaurant.....	7.61
1	Bricklayer.....	7.36
2	Fireman or stationary engineer.....	6.97
1	Factory worker.....	6.64
3	Barber.....	6.64
1	Machinist's helper.....	6.49
1	Watchman.....	6.09
1	R. R. signal man.....	6.09
1	Ice man.....	5.91
1	Peddler.....	5.65
3	Longshoreman.....	5.49
1	Cooper on docks.....	5.49
1	Dock worker.....	5.49
3	Truckdriver.....	5.41
1	Nightwatchman and cleaner, garage.....	5.13
1	Worker in restaurant.....	5.01
2	Laborer.....	3.62
1	Dish washer, hotel.....	1.54
1	Stevedore.....	1.54
7	Dead, previous occupation unknown.....	

52

Median 6.64

Highest score 11.76

Average 7.26

Lowest " 1.54

TABLE IX  
Control Group B

1	Bookkeeper .....	12.26
1	Photographer .....	11.91
1	5 and 10 cent store, owner .....	11.76
1	Fancy goods " " .....	11.76
1	Furrier " " .....	11.76
1	Saloon and Furnished Rooms .....	11.76
1	Laundryman, owner .....	11.76
1	Fruit store, " .....	11.76
1	Glazier, owns business .....	11.76
1	Building contractor .....	11.60
2	Chef .....	10.92
1	Coal, owns small business .....	10.74
2	Shipping clerk .....	10.74
1	Traveling salesman .....	10.38
1	Cutter, ladies' dresses .....	10.35
1	Electro-plater .....	9.51
1	Cloth sponger .....	8.75
1	Mason .....	8.22
1	Cook .....	7.61
4	Barber .....	6.64
6	Factory workers .....	6.64
1	Stationary engineer .....	6.97
1	Caretaker, big house .....	6.49
1	Night watchman .....	6.09
1	Delivery man .....	5.91
1	Sailor .....	5.49
4	Longshoreman .....	5.49
3	Truckman .....	5.41
1	Laborer .....	3.62
2	Porter .....	3.62
2	Stable man .....	3.44
4	Dead and previous occupation unknown.	

52

Median 6.64	Highest score 12.26
Average 7.92	Lowest " 3.44

As we expected, the median is the same, but the average shows a slightly higher type of occupation in the Control than in the Conduct Group.



TABLE X  
Occupations of Mothers, Conduct Group.

- 3 Janitor
- 1 Own business, towel supply
- 2 In husband's store
- 3 "On dresses"
- 1 Hat trimmer
- 2 Factory
- 4 Cleaner
- 3 Day's work

19

Fourteen work outside the home. This includes one worker in husband's store, and, as in the case of the other, the family lives behind the store. Twenty-six per cent work outside the home.

Control Group

- 2 Owns and keeps rooming house
- 3 Janitor
- 1 Janitor and attends switchboard
- 1 Janitor and outside housework
- 1 Midwife
- 2 Work in husband's store
- 1 Telephone operator
- 2 Factory
- 1 "On petticoats"
- 1 Toilet goods factory, cold cream, etc.

15

Six work outside the home all day and 2 for parts of days or occasionally. Only 1 of the workers in husband's store is included in the 6, as the family live in rooms above the other store. Eleven per cent work outside the store.

Health

These frequencies are more striking in their negative quality than the ones for environment. They are:

Conduct Group Control Group B

a.	32.0	48.0
b.	23.0	17.0
c.	3.8	1.8
d.	9.0	19.0
e.	19.0	40.0
f.	1.8	0.0
g.	5.7	5.7
h.	25.0	17.0
i.	38.0	11.0
j.	7.0	9.0
k.	9.0	9.0

One reason for the greater frequency of such much-discussed physical defects as defective teeth and defective vision in the Control group may be the closer attention of the parents to the subject, resulting in greater ease of getting information. In any case we may rule them out as of any significance in contrasting the two groups. The only heading which shows any difference that it seems important to consider is *ior* nervous difficulty. There is some variety under this heading. One boy was diagnosed at a neurological clinic as an organic case; several others were diagnosed as "neurotic types," and the others were designated by the worker as cases of nervous defect because of such objective symptoms as enuresis, nail-biting, excessive crying, or timidity shown by trembling fits. It is natural that this type of defect should influence conduct. It might easily account for the restlessness and inattention which were productive of much classroom friction. Malnutrition also seems to have a relation of some significance.

In the Conduct Group, each boy has an average of 1.6 points against him. In the Control Group, each boy has an average of 1.8 points against him. We cannot say, therefore, that health in general has any significant relation to the extent of misconduct, although one or two items taken separately may.

An effort was made to get light on the general results by trying to correlate health and conduct and environment and conduct within the Conduct Group, as shown in Table XI.

There was little relation indicated between health and conduct. There was some appearance of correlation in the second table and the correlation was worked out and found to be about .25. It is fair to say then that there is a relation between environment and conduct, but not enough to justify our saying that children in a poor environment are more than likely to become delinquent.

An effort was made to make tables which should show the importance of all the different combinations of items which are found in the individual histories. The results were not striking enough to carry out. A few interesting combinations were found, for instance, nervousness was proportionately more closely related to sulking and bearing grudges than to running away. Defective vision was more related to shirking work and to general inattention than it was to fighting other boys—which seems only logical. General constitutional weakness has no relation at all to truancy and gang life, whereas it has to shirking work, inattention and quarrelsome behavior.



In the other table, quarrelsome parents showed a relation to stealing and to fighting; very poor home was related to sulking or bearing grudges and an invalid or "complaining" mother was rather closely related to running away. More work on this would be interesting if the number of cases were greater. The number of logical relations discovered would give weight to those which were significant and not so obvious. Each boy has 5.3 points in conduct against him and, as we have already noted, 1.6 points in health and 4.2 in environment.

TABLE XI  
Correlation Table within Conduct Group

A Conduct and Health													52
5													
4				2	1								3
3			1	5	2	3		1		1			13
2	2	2	2	2	1	2	3	2	1			1	16
1	1	2	3			2	1	2					11
0	1		4			3		1					9
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	
B Conduct and Environment													52
9													
8				1									1
7						1	2		1				4
6	1			1	2			1					5
5	1	1		3		2	2	2	1			1	13
4	1			5	1	2		1		1			11
3			1	3		3							7
2	1	1	2	2	2	2							9
1					1		1						2
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	

It seemed interesting to make a brief survey of the group of 20 chronic truants and see if there were any facts about them which made them stand out in any special way. In the first place 7 of these truant boys have court records out of only 10 for the whole group. Five of the 7 have been sent away, 4 to reformatory institutions, 1 to another state. Of the 3 boys with court records who are not truants, 1 is feeble-minded and was sent to Letchworth Village, 1 was sent to a truant school before coming to New York, and the other is psychopathic and a wanderer.

The median intelligence quotient for the group of truants is 84, about the same as the whole conduct group and as the median which has been previously found for truants. The highest I. Q. is 112, the lowest 55. In the Environment series, we find an average of 4.2 points against each boy; in health 1.6, and in conduct 4.4; the same as the whole group in the first two, and fewer than the whole in conduct. The truant, according to this, never sulks and almost never bullies or blames others in a cowardly way. In other words, his relations with other boys are pretty good. He quarrels, but that is on the whole a more normal pursuit for an active boy than the other three items. On the other hand, he does not pay attention as he should, although he is not lazy; he is apt to be of a thieving disposition and he almost always belongs to a gang or keeps markedly bad company. One fourth of these boys are inveterate smokers and almost half go far too often to the movies.

Following are the frequencies for the three divisions:

	Frequencies in Environment	Health	Conduct for 20 truants
a.	25	30	10
b.	25	25	35
c.	10	5	35
d.	15	10	20
e.	10	35	35
f.	10	5	5
g.	10	5	25
h.	0	15	0
i.	0	20	5
j.	40	5	30
k.	20	5	100
l.	0		100
m.	10		30
n.	20		5
o.	0		40
p.	30		15
q.	20		85
r.	10		25
s.	5		40
t.	10		
u.	0		
v.	85		
w.	65		

It must be remembered that the letters stand for different items under the three different headings. They are combined for convenience, not because there is any relation among them.



In health we find teeth and vision holding about the same place as in the whole group: tonsils, however, is more nearly in the place it occupies in the Control Group. Malnutrition is not so important a defect as in the whole group and constitutional weakness takes a lower place, as does nervousness. It appears then that truants are a more normal group than the Conduct Group. The difference in nervousness is especially marked, as that was the one which mainly distinguished the Conduct Group from the Control.

In environment, there are no very noticeable differences, a larger proportion of the truants live in rough neighborhoods than of the whole group, a fact which might seem to bear some relation to gangs.

#### GENERAL CONCLUSIONS

Before drawing any conclusions from the facts as they have been stated, two things must always be borne in mind: that nothing definite can be affirmed from so small a number of cases, tendencies only are shown and indications of the direction future studies might well take; that these facts as stated are objective and external, and they are combined in many different ways, influencing each other to such an extent that what may appear simple and of little consequence is really most significant. A boy who always blames others for any difficulty he may find himself in and has a cowardly attitude towards taking the proper consequences of his act may seem an easier boy to deal with than one who fights easily and is impertinent and disobedient. But the first may have in his nature the seeds of far more serious difficulty than the second. As Dr. Healy says: "There is generally much more to the case, especially for remedial purposes, that can be learned by superficial observation of the individual, or by enumeration of the apparent conditions of his environment." And, "All conduct is directly an expression of mental life. Immediately back of the action is the idea or the wish or the impulse existing as mental content."

There are certain tentative conclusions which it seems proper to draw from the results as stated:

1. There is a connection between mental status and conduct difficulty, although not so close a one as we have at times believed. The boys who are most apt to get into difficulty are the dull boys, those who do not easily work with their minds alone but need work with their hands or some sort of objective illustrations for abstract matter in order to succeed at all. Many boys who do nothing in school

are not lazy; their eagerness to "go to work" and their steadiness when at work prove this.

2. The school histories of the problem boys show that the schools are doing little to meet these needs. The boys who are over-age are twice as apt to be delinquent as those who are not and the proportion of members of the Conduct Group, who have repeated grades is alarming. "Ordinary school methods, so lacking in individual adjustment, may explain too, in part, the vast retardation which exists. . . . Again and again in our experience, we have found children normal in the main, but who, nevertheless, are retarded two, three, or even more years in school" (Bronner). There seems to be a much higher correlation between conduct difficulty and repetition of grades (than between repetition of grades) and intelligence level; surely this should not be so. The question whether repetition of grades is cause or effect does not matter nearly so much as the fact of the condition itself.

And so the introductory statement is vindicated. The methods of classification are wrong; the school's responsibility is clear.

3. There is some connection between environment and conduct, though apparently not so much as we have believed, at least in this district. Objective facts do not affect behavior as much as the conditions underlying these facts. For instance, broken homes do not matter as much as the character of the family that remains. Boys grow up honest, sturdy, ambitious, as the companions and helps of widowed and working mothers. Orphaned children living with loving and responsible relatives have as much if not more of a chance for a good adjustment to their community than boys whose parents are living but who are indifferent or improper guardians. The facts that stand out as making the difference between normal and problem boys are the last two facts in the Whittier Scale: *Parental conditions* and *Parental supervision*.

4. As to health, results apparently show what is now affirmed in many places that health does not correlate with delinquency; there are as many physical defects among normal as among children abnormal in conduct, although there is a slight increase of such defects among the mentally subnormal. We can conclude from the results of the tables that nervous children are more apt to be troublesome in conduct than those who have no nervous defect, although when it comes to actual "delinquency" this characteristic seems to be lacking.

5. Although occasional truancy is the most frequent form of school delinquency and although constant truants are far more apt to come in conflict with the law than boys with other sorts of conduct difficulties, yet the truants on the whole seem a more hopeful group so far as normal temperament, sturdiness, and energy are concerned. Is it not here that we find the closest connection between the two facts mentioned in the introduction,—delinquency and school procedure? Dr. Maxwell used to say that the children would stay in school and truancy would grow less if the schools were made the sort of place they want to stay in. The normal child, no matter how slow-witted is interested in acquiring information. He is always exploring, finding out things, investigating his environment. Some kinds of children do this in one way, some in another, but a child must be pretty weak in mind and body who does not enjoy and profit by this exploratory tendency. The schools do not furnish enough ways of exploration to meet the needs of the many kinds of children who attend them. And so the rebellious, and sometimes that means the



more sturdy and energetic ones, stay away, or, if that is made too difficult, make life wretched for those in authority over them.

When, however, we come to an end of these fairly obvious conclusions, we find some combinations of difficulties still unexplained. How account on these grounds for a good home, careful parents who cooperate earnestly with the school, and a boy who does not learn,—although he apparently has intellectual ability not much below average,—plays truant, runs away and fools away his time in school? Dr. Davenport discusses *The Feebly Inhibited* as a group whose characteristics are inherited but which should be considered apart from the feeble-minded group. "There is no question of the well-developed intelligence of some of these feebly-inhibited individuals.... it helps to consider separately the hereditary basis of the intellect and the emotions..... For, after all, the chief problems in administering society is that of disordered conduct. Conduct is controlled by the emotions and the quality of the emotions is strongly tinged by the hereditary constitution."

The normal person is "well-balanced and *en rapport* socially," he "works and plays moderately, laughs quietly, does not weep easily, feels little drive and on the other hand is always responsive and cooperative." Dr. Davenport finds that emotional disturbances are due to many somatic conditions, so many that "the normal mood must be conditioned within very narrow limits, so that the remarkable thing is that so many have the normal mood, not that so few have. However, the important point is that all of these conditions . . . acting in an hereditarily predisposed organism, produce as a more or less periodic end result an absence of the normal inhibitions, so that the individual reacts with unwonted or extraordinary violence to a given stimulus." How much this sort of behavior has to do with inheritance; whether these symptoms should all be included under the term "mental life," cannot be discussed here. It is surely true that one finds in the schools many feebly inhibited children with fair or even good homes and fair or even good intelligence. "Immediately back of the action is the wish," and there is no what we used to call self-control to help relate the wish to the environment. These facts as described by Dr. Davenport are marked in the cases of three boys in the Conduct Group whose fathers are alcoholic and also in the case of the boy described above whose parents, so far as I know, are entirely normal in behavior but whose mother has had times of what she calls "nervousness."

We find that besides answering to some degree the questions asked in the introduction, the following rather trite observations have been reaffirmed by a few statistical statements: that the nature of the "bad boy" must be studied after all the external facts, important as they are, have been ascertained and that a child very often is in trouble because he is the kind of a child that gets easily into trouble, and to help him we must find out what that means; that our conclusions as to probable results of various combinations of external factors may easily be modified by understanding better the hidden springs of conduct, and that intellectual ability alone, or poverty and hard times alone, or illness alone, do not determine character, though all may at times be important factors.



# The Journal of Delinquency

Published bi-monthly by The California Bureau  
of Juvenile Research  
WHITTIER, CALIFORNIA

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Entered as second-class matter March 27, 1916 at the Post Office at Whittier, California, under the Act of August 24, 1912. Acceptance for mailing at special rate of postage provided for in Section 1103, Act of October 3, 1917, authorized August 3, 1918.

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Vol. VI

November 1921

No. 6

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## THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS AND DELINQUENCY

Two original articles appear in this issue which relate to the public-school origins of juvenile delinquency. Miss Henry, director of research for the public schools of Santa Ana, California, presents a few of the many cases which she and her assistants have found while making tests and measurements in the schools. The presence of these children had long been evident in Santa Ana, as in all other cities. A special survey of the Santa Ana schools in 1917 reported as follows:

Of the 1855 pupils whose conduct was estimated, 161, or about 8.7 per cent, were marked "troublesome". The behavior of these "troublesome" cases probably varies from almost average conduct to incorrigibility. Supplementary reports furnished by some of the teachers indicate that many of the cases are so consistently inferior in their social behavior under present conditions that the early stages of juvenile delinquency may be clearly detected. Such children may be considered *potentially delinquent*. Probably not less than 100 (and perhaps more) of the "troublesome" boys and girls in the Santa Ana schools are potentially delinquent, which means that they are repeating the history of boys and girls who are now wards of the state in public institutions.

It is significant that most of the delinquency cases from Santa

Ana handled by the juvenile court have been from this very list of pupils. How many others were prevented from becoming delinquent by the application of protective measures since the survey we do not know. Miss Henry's report on fifty more recently developed cases indicates that there is still room for preventive work, even in a city which has been keeping in more than ordinary touch with this problem.

Miss Johnson's article deals with a group of delinquents and potential delinquents in the public schools of New York City. The significant feature of this investigation is the attempt to systematically study the related and associated factors. The delinquent group is compared with a non-delinquent group, in order to test the relative extent of conditions which are often alleged, without comparison, to be specific causes of waywardness.

The important suggestions from such studies are these: first, that juvenile delinquency has its origin in the public schools; second, that the prevention of delinquency is therefore a problem for the public schools; third, that this must be accomplished through some modification of the existing public-school procedure, particularly in the direction of the social supervision of pupils.

The *Journal* will welcome additional discussions and reports of investigations dealing with the early developmental phases of delinquency, as it is in this direction we must look for the application of successful preventive measures. (J.H.W.)

## QUOTATIONS

### CHILD LABOR AND SUBNORMALITY

Subnormal children present a problem from the child labor standpoint. Several states provide for the issuance of working papers to children below the regularly prescribed age if they fall in groups variously described in the statutes as "backward and subnormal," "mentally deficient or sub-standard," "mentally retarded and unable to make further advancement in school."

This exemption is not without its serious dangers. First, there is serious danger of a loose interpretation of the descriptive terms; then there is the further danger of an inaccurate determination of the child's real mental status. The exemption should be always safeguarded by provision for reliable diagnosis and for training and supervision. There are excellent reasons for not keeping dull or defective children in school in the same classes with normal children, but none for turning them loose into industry without the protection and guidance which they, above all others, need. Special classes and schools are the commonly accepted solution, but Connecticut is to try out a novel and promising plan of vocational probation.



This is to operate primarily through the juvenile court and probation officers, but involves for its successful working out the close cooperation of court and school officials and employers. Any valid dealing with subnormal children from the standpoint of child labor or from any other standpoint demands from the public generally just what is demanded in the case of normal children—a new and better understanding of their needs and possibilities. And the possibilities of useful and happy living, even for those children who must always remain children, are, through wise and devoted training, greater than we commonly suppose. We are speaking here not of development, but of adjustment.

Child labor is undemocratic, not merely because it is a denial of children's rights, but because it is a neglect of adult duties. Democracy does not consist so much in what we get as in what we give—the democracy of giving. An eminent Frenchman once described democracy by saying that it enables every man to put forth his utmost effort, but it also means giving every child an opportunity for development according to his potentialities and for adjustment according to his limitations. It cannot be understood without reference to biology and psychology. Democracy applies to all degrees of intelligence and native ability, to all kinds of advantages and disadvantages whether hereditary or environmental.—*News from the Child Welfare Field*. American Child, III-2, Aug. 1921. p. 115.

## PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

**American Prison Association:** *Proceedings of the Annual Congress, Columbus, Ohio*. New York: Wynkoop Hallenbeck Crawford Co., 1920. pp. 469. Price \$3.00.

This is an especially interesting report from an important organization. Of special interest is the attention given at the recent conference to the discussion of scientific methods and preventive work. The American Prison Association is fifty-one years old. It maintains a free clearing house for advice and information relative to prison, reformatory and correctional work. Its objects are the improvement of laws and institutions, the study of crime, and the care of responsive discharged prisoners. It is planned to change the name of the Association to indicate its large field in the study and treatment of delinquency. The annual report is a valuable compilation of current thought, and should be extensively read by workers in this field. (J.H.W.)

**Baldwin, Bird T. and others:** *Studies in Experimental Education*. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press, 1920. pp. 75. Price \$1.25.

This volume comprises the results of a group of physical, mental, and educational measurements of 129 out-of-step pupils, who, in the judgment of Dr. Baldwin, represent typical examples of maladjustment in the public schools. The tables, charts, and discussions show evidence of having been carefully prepared and constitute valuable comparative data. (J.H.W.)

**Binder, Rudolph M.:** *Major Social Problems*. New York: Prentice Hall, 1920. pp. 324.

Fundamental sociological principles and attitudes must be given consideration before we may solve the various problems of society. Dr. Binder presents a series of practical discussions on leading problems of present-day social life in a clear and

interesting manner. The principal subjects given consideration are: social development, family life, eugenics, the woman's movement, work, health, social control, religion, business, nationalism and internationalism, war, civilization, and education. References and questions for each chapter are appended. (W.W.C.)

**Bjerre, Poul:** *The History and Practice of Psychoanalysis*. Boston: Richard G. Badger, 1920. pp. 349. Price \$4.00.

With admirable frankness and open-mindedness this author traces the history of mental analysis. Like other scientific movements, its course has been beset with opposition, dissention, and division of ranks. Here the principal phases of the subject are impartially discussed, with a view to the presentation of the essential soundness of psycho-therapy. While Freud is recognized as a very important factor in this history, there is as little reason for considering him infallible as for reducing his views to an absurdity. "On the one side, its partisans believe in the thing almost to the point of fanaticism; on the other, the attacks of its opponents against it often seem like a revival of the inquisition." The outlook, Bjerre believes, is favorable. There is a future for a well-organized system of psycho-therapy, based wholly on experimental data. The indications are that such work will meet with general public approval. (J.H.W.)

**Breckinridge, Sophonisba P.:** *Madeline McDowell Breckinridge*. Chicago University of Chicago Press, 1921. pp. 275. Price \$2.50.

The subject of this interesting biographical sketch was a distinguished social worker. Written by her sister, it is an authentic account of the personality of a capable woman whose life was entirely devoted to the uplifting of humanity. The book carries with it a history of social progress in the South, especially in and around the city of Lexington, Kentucky. Well-written biography is always a source of inspiration. Social workers will find this book worth possessing. (J.H.W.)

**Burr, C. B.:** *Practical Psychology and Psychiatry*. (Fifth Edition) Philadelphia F. A. Davis Co., 1921. pp. 269. Price \$2.00.

Intended for the use of the practicing psychiatrist, this manual contains a useful classification of insanity with numerous descriptive cases. The section on psychology deals largely with the formal mental processes. The best feature of the book is Part VI, which deals with the prevention of insanity. (J.H.W.)

**Cannon, Walter B.:** *Bodily Changes in Pain, Hunger, Fear and Rage*. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1920. pp. 311.

The noteworthy researches of Dr. Cannon have shown that states of pain, hunger, fear and rage produce definite physiological changes within the body, supplying it frequently with abnormal capacity for resisting or carrying out the actions that are associated with these emotions. These physiological adaptations are of importance to the human mechanism, and a knowledge of them should aid in promoting more efficient behavior. The implied relationship of these facts to the problems of moral development opens an interesting field for future research. (J.H.W.)

**Chapman, J. Crosby:** *Trade Tests. The Scientific Measurement of Trade Proficiency*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1921. pp. 435. Price \$4.00.

The world is looking to the psychological laboratories for what will probably be



considered their greatest contribution—the development of standardized tests for specific abilities. The author of this volume presents, in convenient form, the more important tests which were developed during the war, and discusses the psychological problems involved in this work. The author believes that the refinement of the test method, together with specialized courses in training for employees, will go far toward solving the misfit problem in the industrial world. (J.H.W.)

**Dealy, James Quayle:** *Sociology. Its Development and Applications.* New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1920. pp. 547. Price \$3.00.

Sociology is the developing science which will determine and aid in formulating objectives of social progress. Dr. Dealey presents a general survey of sociological development and a discussion of social problems and factors to be considered in social progress which are particularly suitable as an introduction to the practical aspects of sociology. The book contains thirty chapters grouped in three sections as follows: Part I, Sociology and its Kindred Sciences; Part II, Society and its Institutions; and Part III, Social Progress. The discussion concerning poverty, pauperism, crime, intemperance, and immorality in Part III are especially noteworthy as applications of the principles of sociology to the problems of social economy. (W.W.C.)

**Dobbs, A. E.:** *Education and Social Movements.* New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1919. pp. 257. Price \$3.50.

This work is essentially a history of modern public education in England. The author carefully traces the principal social and economic developments in that country, and shows their relationship to the growth of free public education. (J.H.W.)

**Dunn, Arthur W., and Harris, Hannah M.:** *Citizenship in School and Out.* Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1919. pp. 144. Price 80 cents.

Of all the lessons learned from the great war, none is of greater importance than the value of good citizenship. Believing that the making of good citizens is the function of the public school, especially during the elementary period, the authors of this volume have set forth in a practical way some of the methods by which the curriculum may be extended to this end. (J. H. W.)

**Ellwood, Charles A.:** *An Introduction to Social Psychology.* New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1917. pp. 343. Price \$2.25.

Dr. Ellwood presents in this volume a comprehensive and systematic analysis of the factors of social psychology. The psychological study of the social life is, practically, the more important part of theoretical sociology since "the solution of all social problems must start with the control of the psychic elements involved." Organic and social evolution, human nature and human society, the nature of social unity, social continuity, social change, social order, and social progress, together with the bearing of instinct, intelligence, imitation, suggestion, sympathy, and consciousness of kind in the social life are the principal factors considered. The book is clearly written and is to be considered as one of the best introductory texts in sociology. (W.W.C.)

**Evans, Elida:** *The Problem of the Nervous Child.* New York: Dodd, Mead & Co., 1920. pp. 299. Price \$2.50.

In many instances the source of neuroses of adults has been traced to childhood

and infancy. The childhood repressions in which these conditions had their origin could have been avoided in many instances, had parents and teachers known the probable consequences of their actions. Mrs. Evans has had much experience in the education of nervous children, and has remarkable insight into the unconscious factors in child behavior. Her practical suggestions for preventive and developmental work are clearly and simply presented. This book could be read with profit by all parents and teachers. (J. H. W.)

Findlay, J. J.: *An Introduction to Sociology for Social Workers and General Readers*. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1920. pp. 304. Price \$2.00.

This is not a comprehensive text-book of sociology but, in the author's words, is an attempt to systematically "strike a clear path . . . through the jungle of social questions." It mentions only indirectly, if at all, many of the problems of social welfare with which social workers have to deal in the field of family welfare, child welfare, industrial relations, and social reform. The book contains ten chapters grouped in three sections: (1) principles, (2) types of social grouping, and (3) organization; they may be considered as a series of essays rather than an inclusive presentation of the field of sociology. With this recognition of its limitations, the social viewpoint of the author and the descriptive material included in the book make it one well worth reading and including in the sociological library. (W. W. C.)

Gesell, Arnold: *Vocational Probation for Subnormal Youth*. Reprinted from *Mental Hygiene*, V-2, Apr. 1921. pp. 6.

As chairman of the committee on defectives, Dr. Gesell has had an important part in formulating the proposed Children's Code of Connecticut which gives special consideration to the problem of subnormal children. It includes an extension of the authority of the juvenile court to provide probation on a vocational basis for the purpose of keeping the subnormal individual safely at some gainful employment in his own community. A supervisory state bureau of child welfare, a division of special education and standards as a department of the state board of education to guide and encourage provision for all types of exceptional school children, and a state-wide system of juvenile courts with well-trained probation officers constitute the main administrative proposals of the new code. (W. W. C.)

Goddard, Henry H.: *Juvenile Delinquency*. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co., 1921. pp. 120.

This book is largely a description of the work and problems of the Ohio Bureau of Juvenile Research, which under Dr. Goddard's direction is carrying on important researches in the field represented by the title. Calling attention to the two million persons in the United States, who, by reason of abnormal personalities, "are making our country a dangerous place to live in," the author calls loudly for preventive work, the need for which has been so forcibly brought out by the results of recent scientific work. Especially important is the problem of psychopathic children, who are found in large proportions among delinquents. An attempt has been made by Dr. Goddard's staff to classify and evaluate the elements of the psychopathic personality as found in Ohio institutions. According to the present laws, all state wards in Ohio are committed to the State Board of Administration, under which the Bureau of Juvenile Research is maintained. All child-



ren are classified and passed upon by the Bureau before being definitely placed in any institution. This arrangement is excellent for research purposes. The present volume is an example of the usefulness of the Bureau, not only to the state of Ohio, but to society in general. (J. H. W.)

**Godin, Paul.** *Growth During School Age.* (Trans. by S. L. Eby). Boston: Richard G. Badger, 1920. pp. 268. Price \$3.00.

An interesting and valuable discussion of the general facts of growth, with special reference to their educational significance. The work has been carefully prepared, and is worthy of the author's many years of experimentation and measurement. A special feature of the book is the group of charts showing the relative growth and development of the body and its parts at different age levels. It also contains a bibliography of 124 references and a glossary. (J.H.W.)

**Goldberg, Jacob A.:** *Social Aspects of the Treatment of the Insane.* New York: Columbia University, 1921. (Longmans, Green & Co). pp. 247.

An excellent study, based on inquiry into New York's policy of caring for the insane, a social survey of 786 patients in state hospitals, and an analysis of the more important problems relative to the social and community aspects of mental disease. The author has been especially interested in the problem as it affects the Jewish people but his findings are generally applicable. It is evident, as pointed out by this and other recent investigations, that mental disease vitally concerns the whole population. We cannot expect much longer to be content with the segregation and routine treatment of cases. The recommendations include the improvement of social service and the development of preventive methods through mental hygiene agencies. The latter calls for (a) clinics, (b) convalescent homes, (c) workshops for mental hygiene patients, and (d) psychopathic hospitals. Along with these will come more attention to scientific methods and research in mental deviation. This book is recommended to all organizations for human betterment. (J. H. W.)

**Hanifan, L. J.:** *The Community Center.* New York: Silver, Burdett & Co., 1920. pp. 214.

This volume, prepared by a supervisor of rural schools, "undertakes to present some of the more important rural life problems, particularly as regards rural social life and recreation, and to offer suggestions as to how the teacher, by means of the school as a community center, may contribute very largely to the solution of these problems." It is essentially a manual, analyzing the problem, suggesting the method by which rural social life may be fostered, and presenting many illustrations of successful efforts. Teachers, superintendents, and others interested in seeing the public schools coordinate social service activities will find this book suggestive and helpful. (W. W. C.)

**Harrison, Shelby M.:** *Social Conditions in an American City.* New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1920. pp. 439. Price \$2.50.

This volume summarizes the purpose, methods, facts and recommendations of the social survey of Springfield, Illinois. Part I contains a general statement. Part II summarizes the findings concerning (1) the public schools, (2) care of mental defectives, insane, and alcoholics, (3) recreation, (4) housing, (5) charities,

(6) industrial conditions, (7) public health, (8) the correctional system, and (9) city and county administration. Part III deals with the methods of exhibiting the findings and "putting the facts to work." Appendices include statements of results and copies of the blanks used. Springfield presents conditions typical of many American cities; the survey findings are significant and valuable as indications of social problems to be found in nearly every large city in the United States. The marked feature of this report is the practical suggestions offered to meet the needs indicated. (W.W.C.)

Hericourt, J.: *The Social Diseases*. (Trans. by Bernard Miall). New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., 1920. pp. 246. Price \$2.50.

As the condition of individual cells determines the development of the whole body, so the health of individual human beings determines the development of human society. Any human disease is therefore a social disease, but this becomes especially evident in diseases which are closely associated with other problems of society. Four of these—tuberculosis, syphilis, alcoholism, and voluntary restriction of the birth rate—are discussed in this book. The author addresses a general audience, and speaks plainly on these subjects. (J.H.W.)

Holmes, Samuel J.: *The Trend of the Race*. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1921. pp. 396. Price \$4.00.

It does appear, in answer to the question implied in the title of this book, that the trend of the race is downward in too many respects. Such studies as this should serve to stimulate public thought along the lines of improvement. Chapter IV, entitled *The Heritable Basis of Crime and Delinquency*, sets forth the recent literature of this subject, all of which indicates that crime *per se* is not inherited, but that criminality, delinquency, prostitution and the like are logical social consequences of disgenic inheritance. The author is not over-optimistic with respect to the future. The decision rests with society whether the trend of the race shall be toward health and genius, or toward disease and degeneracy. (J.H.W.)

Inglis, Alexander. *Intelligence Quotient Values*. New York: World Book Co., 1921. Price \$1.25.

A set of convenient and reliable tables of intelligence quotients, calculated for all ages from 3 to 16 years; all chronological ages from 5 to 16 years 11 months; and all intelligence quotients from .30 to 1.70, within the limits of the ages specified. These tables should be a part of the standard equipment of every psychological laboratory. (J.H.W.)

Kelynack, T. N., editor: *School Life*. London: Charles H. Kelly. First edition 1911. pp. 160. Price 1 shilling.

Under the editorship of Dr. Kelynack the publishers have issued a series of *National Health Manuals*, especially designed for the use of social workers. The present volume deals with the practical problems of school life, with special reference to medical and health work. The twelve chapters are by leading English authorities, and are mostly well-written. (J.H.W.)

Lay, Wilfrid: *The Child's Unconscious Mind*. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co., 1920. pp. 329. Price \$2.00.

Every human act consists of conscious and unconscious elements. That the



present methods of education place too much stress on the former and almost ignore the latter, is the thesis of this book. Teachers and parents who are willing to face squarely the facts related to the development of children may contribute untold wealth to these growing minds. This aim the author would have more generally realized through the employment of psychoanalytic methods in the home and school. (J.H.W.)

Loeb, Sophie Irene.: *Everyman's Child*. New York: Century Co., 1920. pp. 286.

The child referred to in this title is the institution child—the ward of the state. The author makes a popular appeal for more intelligent consideration of the needs of these children, both in and out of the institution, with special reference to the ultimate economy of preventive work. (J.H.W.)

Low, Barbara: *Psycho-Analysis*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Howe, 1920. pp. 199.

Intended as a brief account of the Freudian theory, the author has been successful in this presentation to the general reader. The reviewer considers this probably the best and most interesting of recent introductions to the subject. The last chapter on "probable social and educational results" is especially worthy of the consideration of educators and social workers. (J.H.W.)

Mackie, Ransom A.: *Education During Adolescence*. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., 1919. pp. 222. Price \$2.00.

Introduced by Dr. G. Stanley Hall as "a product of long thought and extensive reading," this work should fill a long-felt need among workers in the secondary field. Dr. Hall thinks it should be in the hands of every high school principal and teacher, and every superintendent. The subject-matter deals with the special problems of the adolescent ages, and the related educational needs. Special need is shown for broadening the curriculum in history and English. (J.H.W.)

Martin, Lillian J.: *Pedagogical Hints from the Results of a Survey of a San Francisco Public School for Delinquent Boys*. San Francisco: Martin Mental Hygiene Publication No. 5. (Undated). pp. 18.

A survey, made in 1918, of the Ethan Allen school for boys, San Francisco. Of 92 boys enrolled, only 9 were of American descent, the remainder being mostly Italians. The boys had come from a few socially unfavorable communities in the city, 23 being from a single neighborhood, and 15 from another. Army alpha tests of 65 boys resulted as follows: high average, 10; average, 29; low average, 19; inferior, 5; very inferior, 2. On the basis of Stanford-Binet tests and supplementary data, 13 boys were classified as feeble-minded. Only 3 boys were found by educational tests to be "at age," 89 being retarded. A rough temperamental classification shows the following: *choleric*, 12; *phlegmatic*, 15; *average*, 61; *unclassified*, 14. It is reported that 22 are excitable. The medical examinations revealed numerous physical handicaps, chiefly malnutrition, flat feet, adenoids, and diseased tonsils. Speech defects were found in 30 cases. The chief delinquencies were truancy and insubordination. Indications are that the institution has improved the conduct in most cases. Among the recommendations are manual training, encouragement of leadership among a few selected cases, the adoption of slogans, and the use of psychological and sociological methods. Nine brief case histories are present-

ed. This is a commendable survey of a small institution. The example might well be followed by other special schools. (J.H.W.)

Meriam, Junius L.: *Child Life and the Curriculum*. New York: World Book Co. 1920. pp. 529.

Sounding a warning that the present school curriculum is about to fall under its own cumbersome weight, Dr. Meriam in this book discusses the development of a new system, based on the essential principles. The schools of today are represented as neither interesting nor adequately serving the pupils; as not reaching the needs of the community; and as not making sufficient allowance for individual differences. A new and better curriculum should be based on a survey of social problems and some of the recent trends in educational procedure, including the use of scientific methods. Numerous references are made to the practice school of the University of Missouri, under the author's direction, where the new methods which he advocates are in effect. This school, he states, has no text books, no regular assignments, no examinations, and no class recitations. This book should be of interest and value to all educators. (J.H.W.)

New York: *Report of the Prison Survey Committee*. Albany: 1920. pp. 412.

The main purpose of this survey was to outline a consistent, thought-out, general prison plan or policy which could be adopted and carried forward through a series of years. The report includes provision for administration and for the scientific classification, segregation, and individual treatment of prisoners. Students of penology should give careful attention to the recommendations of this detailed report which, in addition to its scientific basis, bears the additional distinction of being well organized and clearly written. It includes considerable data relating to such factors as mental status of prisoners, educational retardation, vocational training, and rehabilitation. (W.W.C.)

Patrick, G. T. W.: *The Psychology of Social Reconstruction*. New York: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1920. pp. 273. Price \$2.00.

In turning the psychological searchlight upon the problems of social reconstruction, Dr. Patrick probes to the main springs of human activity. He finds that social reform theories omit the human equation, forgetting that man is the composite of instincts and desires, not the least of which is the desire to achieve. The assumption that man desires a condition of satisfied wants is wrong. He craves the striving, ambition-producing circumstances of unsatisfied desires. With admirable truth and clarity, the author strips bare the modern Utopian schemes, showing wherein they fail to promise any permanent cessation of our present unrest. His analysis of work steers clear of the usual decrying of the results of the industrial revolution, recognizes the basic desires to achieve and finds that the various plans for industrial democratization fall wide of the mark. The next task of applied science is the creation of better men rather the remedial measures now offered. Education and psychology need to so deal with men's minds that many of the social problems will be avoided. Thus through knowledge of things, of men and particularly of ourselves would Dr. Patrick hope to bring true social reconstruction. He sounds an encouraging note with his declaration that our feeling of discouragement with the present civilization is the indication of higher idealism and an admirable discontent. (E.K.B.)



**Phelan, John J.:** *Motion Pictures as a Phase of Commercialized Amusement in Toledo, Ohio.* Toledo: Little Book Press. Social Survey Series III. August 1919. pp. 292. Price \$2.00.

This study is a census of the status of motion pictures in Toledo, together with consideration of the physical, mental, educational, moral, and social factors involved in their use as one of the principal forms of commercialized recreation. Considerable data concerning various types of non-commercialized amusements and community work among the young are also included. (W.W.C.)

**Ruch, G. M.:** *A Preliminary Study of the Correlations Between Estimates of Volitional Traits and the Results from the Downey "Will-Profile."* Reprinted, from Journal of Applied Psychology, June, 1921. pp. 159-162.

An extension of the method used by Dr. Downey in testing out the scale. Here as in Dr. Downey's report, one feels the prominence of the subjective factor on the part of the judges and the consequent prominence of error of judgment. Much of this liability to error no doubt arises from uncertainty as to the accuracy of the labelling of the individual tests. It will be interesting to see what further results this investigator secures. (E. K. B.)

**Rushmore, Elsie M.:** *Social Workers' Guide to the Serial Publications of Representative Social Agencies.* New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1921. pp. 174. Price \$3.50.

A splendid means of acquainting the social worker with periodicals and reports on subjects of social work and allied lines. The book is divided into two parts: one which contains an alphabetical list of reports and publications, including many from foreign countries; and the other which lists these by subject. The book evidences thorough work in its preparation. It has many uses and should be part of every social worker's library. (E.K.B.)

**Sheffield, Herman B.:** *Diseases of Children.* St. Louis: C. V. Mosby Co., 1921. pp. 798. Price \$9.50.

The author presents this volume as the consummation of his thirty years' work in pediatrics. It deals with all of the important diseases of childhood, from birth to adolescence. It contains 238 illustrations and nine color plates. The book is especially designed for the medical practitioner and students of medicine who wish to become acquainted with the rapidly growing field of child hygiene. It is a good reference book for any library. (J.H.W.)

**Snedden, David:** *A Digest of Educational Sociology.* New York: Teacher's College, Columbia University, 1920. pp. 264.

A summary of problems indicated by sociological theory as related to the major educational problems from the sociological point of view are given by Dr. Snedden, based upon the thesis that "a developed sociology must chiefly provide the objectives required to give definiteness of purpose to major and minor educational procedures. Sociology must reveal what are the goals expected to be realized for individuals (of various kinds and potentialities) as well as for social groups through their adjusted individual members." The first half of the digest deals with sociological factors of general educational significance while the remainder continues the presentation of problems related to objectives in the organ-

ization of curricula for age groups, grade levels, and school subjects. The book seems primarily useful as a guide to problems, topics, and subjects for further investigation; it is a syllabus rather than a text book and is suited to needs of advanced students or those having ready access to collateral readings referred to in the digest. The array of problems included are suggestive of the amount of social and educational research which must be undertaken before we may expect to determine satisfactory objectives of educational procedure. (W.W.C.)

**Steiner, Jesse Frederick:** *Education for Social Work*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1921. pp. 99. Price \$1.00.

Having laid the ground work by discussing the nature of social work and past and present methods of securing training for it, the author proceeds to discuss the proper means of acquiring education for social work. Much of the collegiate study, before the world war, was little more than an excellent background for professional study. Schools of social work have given opportunity for the study of actual cases, but the universities have lost through lack of touch with the workers and the workers through too great concentration upon immediate needs. The problem itself should always be the point of departure, but should be supplemented by a study of causes and interacting factors to give the student breadth of viewpoint. The author thus concludes that the four-year university course followed by graduate work in the professional courses of one or two years according to the character of the undergraduate's preparation provides the best training. Field-work, of the social research type, corresponds to laboratory experience in medical training and constitutes the social work laboratory while field-work which deals with social adjustments is the social work clinic. Following the medical analogy, social work training should be followed by a period of internship. The writer has comprehensively dealt with one of the most pressing problems of present-day social service. (E.K.B.)

**U. S. Department of Labor:** *Women's Wages in Kansas*. Washington Women's Bureau, Bulletin No. 17, 1921. pp. 104.

This interesting survey of wages paid to women in the industries of Kansas, June, 1919, to June, 1920, presents its problem from a two-fold point of view,—actual earnings, and their adequacy to meet the responsibilities of the employees. It is to be noted that these wage earnings "may be considered representative of Kansas at its very best," a peak reached and passed. Carefully planned investigations were made among leading manufacturing and industrial establishments in 31 large cities of the state and numerous charts and tables compiled showing actual and comparative wages and related factors of age, nativity, experience, home responsibilities, dependency, etc. The conclusions point to a lack of progressiveness on the part of Kansas in this direction; the Kansas wages being far lower than those prevalent elsewhere. "The alarming number of women who have, at this time of highest compensation, been receiving far less than a living wage should challenge the attention of every citizen of the state." (M.E. Perry)

**Von Hug-Hellmuth, H.:** *A Study of the Mental Life of the Child*. (Trans. by J. Putnam and M. Stevens). Washington: Nervous and Mental Disease Pub. Co., 1919. pp. 154. Price \$2.00.

The significance of this monograph is summed up by the translators: "We have



grown so thoroughly accustomed to accepting certain points of contact between infants and ourselves, not only as valuable, but as representing all the contacts that could be thought of as existing, that the inclination to look further tends to cease, and we content ourselves, for the most part, with seeing, in our progeny, the signs of mental processes just like our own, or what we wish our own and theirs to be." Dr. Von Hug-Hellmuth has made a thoroughgoing study, in the light of the Freudian hypothesis, of the development of the mental life of infants and young children. Although opinions differ as to the emphasis to be placed on the mental content as described by Freud and his students, it should be generally conceded that many of the explanations of child behavior brought out in such studies as this throw important light on the problem of making more efficient and happier human beings. (J.H.W.)

**Walston, Sir Charles:** *Eugenics, Civics and Ethics*. Cambridge: University Press, 1920. pp. 56.

This booklet contains the substance of a lecture delivered by the author at the summer school of eugenics, civics, and ethics at Cambridge in 1919. It is a popular, but well prepared discussion of the significance of human breeding as applied to ethical and moral problems. His point is that ethical and civic guidance can turn the development of instincts toward higher standards of living. (J.H.W.)

#### PAMPHLETS

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**Abbott, Julia Wade:** *Kindergarten Education, 1918-1920*. Washington: U.S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 19, 1921. pp. 12.

**Browning, William:** *The Pro-Moral Center: Its Practical Relations*. New York: William Wood & Co., 1921. pp. 15.

**Capen, Samuel Paul:** *Facilities for Foreign Students in American Colleges and Universities*. Washington: U.S. Bureau Education, Bulletin No. 39, 1920. pp. 269.

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**Gesell, Arnold:** *Public School Provision for Exceptional Children*. Reprinted from Annals of American Academy of Political and Social Science, Nov. 1921. Pub. No 1567. pp. 9.

**Hoag, Ernest B., and Williams, Edward H.:** *The Case of J. P. Watson, the Modern "Bluebeard."* Reprinted from Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology XII-3, Nov. 1921. pp. 348-359.

**Howe, Lucien.:** *A Bibliography of Hereditary Eye Defects*. Cold Spring Harbor: Eugenics Record Office, Bulletin No. 21. May 1921. pp. 45.

**Laird, Donald A.:** *The Function and Functioning of the State Hospital Training School.* Reprinted from Bulletin of State Institutions. Vol. 23, No. 2. pp. 74-87. Also from American Journal of Insanity. April, 1921.

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**Laird, Donald A.:** *The Element of Personality in Nursing.* Reprinted from American Journal of Nursing, Vol. 21 Nos. 10, 11. 1921. pp. 697-702 and 775-778.

**Martin, Lillien J.:** *The Work of a Mental Hygiene Clinic for Pre-School Age Children.* San Francisco: California Society for Mental Hygiene, Publication No. 5. July 1921. pp. 4.

**New York State Hospital Commission:** *Annual Statistical Review of the Insane in the State Hospitals and Private Licensed Institutions for the Year Ending June 30, 1920.* By Horatio M. Pollock, Statistician. Albany, 1921. pp. 368.

**Pollock, Horatio M.:** *Mental Disease in Twelve States, 1919.* Reprinted from Mental Hygiene, V-2, April 1921. pp. 353-389.

**Pollock, Horatio M.:** *Mental Disease in Cities, Villages, and Rural Districts of New York State, 1915-1920.* Utica: State Hospitals Press, 1921. pp. 28.

**Pollock, Horatio M.:** *Eugenics as a Factor in the Prevention of Mental Disease.* Utica: State Hospitals Press, 1921. pp. 7.

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**Sims, Edwin W.:** *Speedy Justice in Criminal Cases.* Chicago: Crime Commission, Bulletin No. 20. September 12, 1921. pp. 8.

**Snoddy, George. and Hyde, George E.:** *Mental Survey of Utah Schools and Adaptation of the Army Beta Tests.* Salt Lake City: Univ. of Utah Dept. of Psychology in Cooperation with State Board of Insanity, 1921. pp. 28.

**Southard, E. E.:** *The Functions of a Psychopathic Hospital.* New York: National Committee for Mental Hygiene, 1920. pp. 16.

**Tigert, John James:** *The Teaching of Civics as an Agency for Community Interest and Citizenship.* Washington: U. S. Bureau of Education, 1921. pp. 9.

**Whipple, Guy M.:** *The National Intelligence Tests.* Reprinted from Journal of Educational Research, IV-1, June 1921. pp. 16-31.

**U. S. Department of Labor:** *Health Problems of Women in Industry.* Washington: Women's Bureau, Bulletin No. 18, 1921. pp. 11.



## PERIODICAL LITERATURE

**Is the Juvenile Court Passing?** The idea that the juvenile court has possibly outlived its usefulness is due to three facts: (1) There is a growing recognition that case-work with children could and should be enormously developed outside the court and especially in connection with schools; (2) Many students of the juvenile court movement believe that courts having jurisdiction of present juvenile court judges should also have the jurisdiction of judges in so-called family or domestic relations courts; (3) The accumulation of unnecessary administrative functions respecting children in any court is unwise. However, there will always be a minimum number of services in behalf of children that courts alone can adequately give. These services include all questions of disputes over doubtful custody and guardianship; control and discipline of parents and other adults who neglect or abuse children; control and discipline of a minimum number of juvenile delinquents whom educational and case-work methods alone have not sufficed to control. "While juvenile court prophets look for a decrease in the numbers of children in courts, complete socialized courts with juvenile jurisdiction will always be needed. —*Henry W. Thurston*. Survey, XLVII-4, Oct. 22, 1921. pp. 119-120. (W.W.C.)

**The Treatment of Women Offenders.** There has recently been a marked decrease in the number of women court arraignments, attributed to prohibition and high wages. There are about 2200 women offenders in custody in New York state distributed as follows: city and county institutions, 300; state institutions, 600; private institutions, 1300. The number of women on probation has increased in ten years from 340 to 1013. The most common offences are prostitution, loitering, and soliciting. The practice of fining is not satisfactory, and should be abolished. Judges should become better informed concerning the institutions to which commitments are made, and should inquire more carefully into the facts before granting probation. It is recommended that a two year term in the reformatory replace the present three year term. It is also suggested that the women prisoners at Auburn prison be transferred to the reformatories at Albion and Bedford. The proportion of feeble-minded among women offenders ranges from 17 to 41 per cent. It is estimated that about 25 per cent could be properly considered custodial cases. More attention to this problem is urged.—*Mary V. Clark*. (Reprinted from *Policeman's News*). Ungraded, VI-7, April 1921. pp. 162-168. (J.H.W.)

**Rural Child Delinquency.** The people of a city live and act collectively while those of the country do so individually. This naturally leads to difference in attitude and method of handling social situations. Rural boys and girls are not necessarily less apt to become malefactors but are not as readily detected in wrong doing, and if detected, not as frequently brought before the authorities as urban children. "Rural families are comparatively self-protecting in matters of delinquency and naturally charitable in matters of distress among their neighbors; they call in outside agencies either of public or private character, only in instances of extreme necessity, when their own resources are inadequate. Urban families are not so self-reliant nor so alert in relieving the suffering, in the city the charitable and correctional agencies are ever active in doing professionally the service which in the country is done, perhaps not so well nor so scientifically, but humanely

and with that personal touch which warms the hearts of both the server and the served.—*Edwin N. Clopper*. *Survey*, XLVI-17, Aug. 16, 1921. pp. 607-608. (W.W.C.)

**The Delinquent in Court.** Juvenile delinquency is commonly the outgrowth of neglect; the cases of true perversion are rare. Parental ignorance and lack of recognition of responsibility permit the child to grow up untrained in social ideals and conduct. The real work for the delinquent should be preventive and begun in infancy. The function of the attendance officer is vital since truancy and delinquency are closely related. Appearance in court should not necessarily mean commitment to an institution; the judge should also try probation. Nine months work in Douglas County, Wisconsin, showed favorable results for court probationers.—*S.L. Perrin*. *National Humane Review*, IX-10, Oct. 1921. pp. 190-191. (E.K.B.)

**The Defective Delinquent at Lincoln.** Feeble-minded boys and girls transferred from the industrial schools and reformatory do not get along well at the institution for feeble-minded. They are often troublesome, and not amenable to the type of supervision on which the institution depends. They are frequently aggressive and nomadic. Having become acquainted with parole procedure of the industrial schools, they are dissatisfied with permanent segregation. However, it is proper that they should be removed from the industrial schools, which are expected to train children who are capable of social success. The solution lies in the direction of a separate institution for defective delinquents.—*Anna Polkowski*. *Institution Quarterly*, XII-1,2, June 1921. pp. 110-112. (J. H. W.)

**The Menace of Delinquency.** According to government statistics, delinquency in Canada has increased three hundred per cent during the past twenty years. This statement make the situation appear more serious than it really is because since the opening of the Juvenile Court many more offenders are dealt with than formerly and because not over thirty per cent reappear before the judge due to use of the system. The real menace of delinquency does not lie in the mere increase of cases but in the contributing causes for the same, which are: (1) broken home life; (2) mental deficiency,—of 111 cases examined at Montreal Clinic only 34 were found to be normal; (3) illiteracy and idleness,—336 of 1139 cases appearing before the judge were unable to read or write, 45 per cent were unemployed, 80 per cent were addicted to the use of cigarettes; (4) motion pictures,—many of which are comparatively harmless for purposes of relaxation so far as adults are concerned but are simply producing delinquency in children.—*Gordon Dickie*. *Social Welfare*, III-7 April 1, 1921. pp. 184-185. (W.W.C.)

**Mental Types, Truancy and Delinquency.** In our schools which place a premium on the verbal type of intelligence, much truancy may be traced to failure to progress on the part of manual minded pupils. An estimate places two-thirds of delinquency as closely associated with truancy. Scientific study indicates the possibility of combating truancy by making school work attractive to all types. For this there is necessary improved scientific classification of children by individual abilities and endowments and a modification of courses to fit qualitative mental differences. Mental level classification is producing valuable results in the public schools of Michigan. Special study at the New Jersey State Home for Boys



by means of various mental, physical and educational tests results in individual classifications and ratings of distinct value as guides to further education and training. The delinquent boys fall into two mental types, the verbal, and the manual who show advanced general ability in concrete performance, with a heavy majority of the manual type. Further study is necessary to account for this qualitative difference. Vocational education, developed especially for the lower school grades, seems to be a distinct step toward relieving the school of at least part of the heavy burden of delinquency.—*Edgar A. Doll*. *School and Society* XIV-361, November 26, 1921. pp. 482-485. (K.M.C.)

**Self-government for Truants.** A boys' court was organized in a special room, made up entirely of incorrigible boys, in the Dore School situated in the congested nineteenth ward of Chicago. The officers of the court consist of a judge, prosecuting attorney, bailiffs, clerk, and probation officers, with right of jury trial. The decisions are made and carried out by the boys themselves without interference from the authorities, no matter how unwise they may appear to outsiders. In spite of serious handicaps due to environmental surroundings the boys' court has brought about a marked improvement in the behavior of the boys themselves, has lessened the work of the truancy department, and decreased the number of cases coming into the juvenile court. If a similar unit could be established in every Chicago public school the demands on all protective and corrective agencies would be appreciably lightened.—*Albert E. Webster*. *Survey*, XLVI-17, Aug. 16, 1921. p. 608. (W.W.C.)

**The Socially Inadequate: How Shall We Designate and Sort Them?** The term "defective, dependent and delinquent classes" has become a scrap-basket title to include all of those persons not rated as effective and largely self directive members of the community. What is needed is, first, a single title which by definition and usage will convey a clear-cut general class meaning, and, second, a subsidiary list which will call the sub-classes which belong to the same general group by their own specific medical, legal, biological, or social names. A referendum held principally among professors of sociology of the country indicated general agreement that the old term is unsatisfactory but there is no agreement upon a single title to take its place. It appears appropriate to use the general title "socially inadequate" as quite properly and accurately including all of the groups in need of special restraint, direction, or care, of which the following specific classes are definite sub-groups: (1) feeble-minded; (2) insane; (3), criminalistic (including the delinquent and wayward); (4) epileptic; (5) inebriate (including drug habitues); (6) diseased (including the tuberculous, lepers, and others with chronic infectious segregated diseases); (7) blind (including those with seriously impaired vision); (8) deaf (including those with seriously impaired hearing); (9) deformed (including the crippled); (10) dependent (including orphans, old folks, soldiers and sailors in "homes," chronic charity-aided folk, paupers, ne'er-do-wells).—*Harry H. Laughlin*. *American Journal of Sociology*, XXVII-1, July, 1921. pp. 54-71. (W. W. C.)

**Children's Lies.** Distinction should be made between the various kinds of lies. The intentional lie is a different thing from the fanciful lie of the five or six year old child. Secrets are conducive to lies and should be discouraged in children.

Example and suggestion are valuable allies in teaching the child truthfulness.—*Henry S. Curtis*. Pedagogical Seminary, XXVIII-4, Dec. 1921. pp. 382-390. (E.K.B.)

**The Play of a Nation.** Play to be "wholesome and truly recreative, must involve only those areas of the brain and those parts of the nervous system which in the evolution of man are old and previous and easy." The social value of play and recreation lies in the opportunity they give for the harmless outlet of pugnacious and selfish instincts. Fundamentally it appears that the more primitive sport has higher recreational value as it fulfills both of the above requirements. Football has high recreational value for the participants; less for the observers. The dance, in its old form, has much recreative importance, but its present form has little which does not involve a moral problem. The movies calls upon those brain areas most needing relief and offers little in return. The automobile has more social value than the dance, but is so mechanical that the real essence of play is lost, the craving for speed and rivalry being about all of the primitive sort retained.—*G. T. W. Patrick*. Scientific Monthly, XIII-4, Oct. 1921. pp. 350-363. (E.K.B.)

**The Moral Education of Youth.** An organized movement is under way, intent upon determining the ethical personality of the coming generations by the formal instruction in morals in all educational institutions. Many naive schemes are used to instruct the young in right and wrong which we must reject as worthless, because when transmitted verbally from teacher to pupil they fail to become a habit or character influence. Moral educators must deal with the ideals and characters that have grown from the long influence of family, group and race. The problem is then to unfold the power and moral nature of youth by suitable stimuli. The story telling method, if properly used and analyzed, will have a two-fold benefit; first, the child's innate moral nature will be liberated; second, the child will acquire the habit of analyzing actual moral situations, thus developing moral thoughtfulness. Vital moral ideas are acquired by contact with life itself regardless of teachings. The difficulty of using a schedule of moral instruction arises when attempt is made to apply the abstract rule to a concrete case. Also if formal instruction in morals becomes an integral part of the school system the result will be partizan and sectarian. The permissible conclusion then is to establish conditions which will make possible natural, normal character growth by daily contact with persons who do not prevent moral life but encourage it by their own examples. Youth should be given the stories of great human endeavors, successes and ambition, their dreams and environment in order that they too will develop a life interest. Public education can and must develop the basic qualities of moral personality, as intellectual integrity, creative purpose, cooperation and appreciation of beauty.—*M. C. Otto*. International Journal of Ethics, XXXII-1, October, 1921. pp. 52-67. (*Zelda Moss*)

**The Hinterland.** Certain portions of the Back Lands of the province of Ontario have not been studied or surveyed with any constructive program in mind. The problem of the Hinterland is isolation and scattered settlement rather than the usual problem of congestion of buildings and scarcity of land for building. Throughout the district settlers have been permitted to locate indiscriminately, and have been granted land, presumably for farming, although of each 200 acres



scarcely 25 per cent of the ground is tillable. Many small villages have sprung up usually about lumber mills or at the base of lumbering or mining operations. Near these villages people drift in, apply for land grants, and locate on the land. Being far from the socializing agencies of school, church, and recreational centers and without opportunity for development, they soon fall into a "hand to mouth" existence, disregarding the most elementary standards of civilized life. Shiftlessness, degeneracy, mental inertia, delinquency and low standards of living are frequently found. A small group of families present problems which require the attention of the Departments of Land and Forests, Agriculture, Education, Health, Attorney General, and Provincial Secretary, if they are to be given adequate treatment.—Social Welfare, III-7, April 1, 1921. pp. 196-199. (W.W.C.)

**The Case for the Low I.Q.** Certain fallacies are prevalent in the present-day conception of intelligence tests. For instance, there are the illustrious men who have been classed as school failures. There is also the large percentage of pupils who apparently lack sufficient mentality to carry on current curricula, which suggests the question, "Is it the mental ability of the population or the curricula which is at fault?" Present-day intelligence tests are narrow and academic, based largely on school success. "General intelligence" is a too loosely used term, many other kinds of intelligence being measured under that name mechanical ability for instance. A study shows that 20 per cent of pupils from a typical school, who are below average in general abstract intelligence are above average in the kind of ability required for mechanical tests. Such ability may be of quite as general importance as that required to score high in abstract general intelligence tests, since present environment is so largely permeated with the results of mechanical genius and applied science. Any stigma is wrongly placed if attached to pupils testing low in so-called intelligence tests for there is still ample opportunity for useful and happy lives in tasks not adapted to those of higher levels of intelligence.—*John L. Stenquist*. *Journal of Educational Research*, IV-4, Nov. 1921. pp. 241-254. (K.M.C.)

**The Field of Eugenic Reform.** From the practical aspect, eugenic reform has two problems—the reduction of the number of unfit whose defect is dependent upon a single Mendelian factor, and the reduction in number of those whose defect is dependent upon a large number of factors. The first is the very simplest problem with which eugenists have to deal. The feeble-minded are an example of this group. Segregation plus sterilization seems the wisest experimental measure. The plan to reduce the number of the second group is linked with the effort to increase the number of the racially fit. "Our main endeavor ought to be to raise the level of the whole people in regard to their inborn qualities, for which purpose large numbers must be affected." Inducing the better strain to produce larger families suggests state aid for additional children. "Here we generally have to look to the class as a whole, and to apply such remedies as do not necessitate the selection of individuals, the aim being to raise the level of the whole people. It is on such qualities as these that the slow improvement or deterioration of our civilization will in the main depend . . . ."—*Leonard Darwin*. *Scientific Monthly*, XIII-5, Nov. 1921. pp. 337-398. (E.K.B.)

**Kindergarten Control of School Entrance.** The kindergarten offers great possibilities for future constructive work. On the biological, medical, pathological and psychological sides the pre-school period is the most vital. "The kindergarten is admirably fitted for the development of a policy of observation of school beginners leading to a hygienic control of school entrance." The exceptional child should be detected by means of physical and mental examination and educational observation and a plan for future treatment outlined. In this way the "3,000,000 domestic, juvenile immigrants" may pass intelligently into the school system which must bear the responsibility of meeting the child's needs.—*Arnold Gesell*. *School and Society*, XIV-364, Dec. 17, 1921. pp. 559-564. (E.K.B.)

**Backward Boys.** Biographies of great men bring to light many who were considered dull, stupid, or poor pupils during their school days. These histories show that it is not unusual for an eminent man to be considered a dullard in his boyhood. In spite of our tests and increasing knowledge, it is possible that we would thus fail to include in our eagerly established classes for superior children many who rightly belonged there.—*Alice M. Clark*. *Pedagogical Seminary*, XXVIII-4, Dec. 1921. pp. 391-394. (E.K.B.)

**The Teaching Profession and Social Problems.** The tendency of the teaching profession toward professionalization jeopardizes the position of community leader which the educator should naturally hold. The widening gap between the older and younger generations which the introduction of radicalism is producing makes more necessary than ever the retention of the educator as intelligent critic or intelligent instructor.—*Paul Monroe*. *American School*, VII-11, Nov. 1921. p. 241. (E.K.B.)

**Science and Sociology.** Although sociology aspires to call itself scientific, its scientific achievements have been disappointing. Social theory has proved fruitless for the purpose of securing social betterment; a utilitarian point of view should be adopted in social research, with the objective of discovering socially practicable means for minimizing undesirable social conditions. Five more or less scientific inductive methods of arriving at truth are: the common-sense method, the historical method, the museum or census method, the laboratory or experimental method, and the statistical method. The statistical method alone meets the requirements of precision, objectivity, and universality under the conditions involved in social research. It may be defined as involving "the study of the correlations between socially significant variables by means of the comparison of groups of data which can be objectively measured and classified, but cannot readily be controlled for experimental purposes." Statistical technique is not an automatic method of ascertaining truth, nor does it eliminate the necessity for common sense, scientific insight, or laborious research. Correlation is a development in mathematical terms of the principles of logic and reduces the probability of many of the most serious logical fallacies.—*Hornell Hart*. *American Journal of Sociology*, XXVII-3, Nov., 1921. pp. 364-383. (W.W.C.)



## STATE AND INSTITUTION REPORTS

**California.** *Commission of Immigration and Housing.* Camp Sanitation and Housing. San Francisco, 1919. pp. 79.

An advisory pamphlet suggestive of the most satisfactory method of locating, constructing, and administering labor camps. (W.W.C.)

**California.** *Commission of Immigration and Housing.* 1920. Bulletin of Information for Immigrants. pp. 24.

A manual of general information, printed in several languages, prepared to explain in a simple manner conditions, customs, and laws which most frequently cause trouble for our foreign born people. It was compiled after a careful study of the complaint register covering a period of six years. (W.W.C.)

**Canada.** *Public Welfare Commission of Manitoba.* Third and Final Report, 1920. A. Percy Padget, secretary. Winnipeg, Manitoba. pp. 51.

The final reports of committees on (1) finance, supervision, and control, (2) hospitals and nursing, (3) prisons and reformatories, (4) dependent poor, and (5) child welfare, including a synopsis of legislation for creation of a department of child welfare, are presented in this publication of the Public Welfare Commission of Manitoba. Of special interest concerning delinquents are the statements that (1) "intelligent treatment of delinquents must first of all take cognizance of their mental standards, physical condition, and general aptitudes, and be guided in its choice of methods by the findings of trained experts in this field . . . . . Expenditures which provide for scientific investigation and treatment ought to be supported on grounds of economy alone." (2) Recognition of the family and social relations of prisoners should result in serious consideration owing to the payment of wages to the delinquent in custody for the upkeep of his family. (3) In the treatment of women delinquents greater attention should be given to psychopathic conditions, the incidence of venereal diseases and scientific treatment based upon individual diagnosis. In the proper treatment of prostitution, there should be a thorough examination of suspects; where sex misdirection is proven or disease is found or mental defect is present, custodial care, best given under farm colony system with indeterminate sentence, is essential. (W.W.C.)

**Iowa.** *Institution for Feeble-minded Children.* Biennial Report, 1920. George Mognridge, superintendent. Glennwood, Iowa. pp. 52.

This institution was established in 1876 as a link in the public school system. On June 30, 1920, there were a total of 1503 inmates enrolled, and a waiting list of over one hundred. Of the feeble-minded in residence, 278 were idiots, 962 imbeciles, and 263 morons. "The tendency in an institution such as this is toward the accumulation of this (helpless) class, as many of the brighter children are removed to their homes after they have received all the education and training we can give." (W.W.C.)

**Kansas.** *State Hospital for Epileptics.* Ninth Biennial Report, 1920. Dr. O. S. Hubbard, superintendent. Parsons, Kan. pp. 22.

The greatest need of this institution is said to be "a higher standard among employees who come in direct contact with the patients." A large part of the turmoil and strife which occurs among the patients and most of the difficulties be-

tween employees and patients are due to the attitude of the attendant more than the abnormality of the patient. Three hundred and thirty-five male and 245 female epileptics were present in the hospital on June 30, 1920; of the whole group 273 were sane and 302 insane. Heredity and infantile cerebropathies were found to be the most common cause of epilepsy among those admitted. (W.W.C.)

**Maine.** *School for Feeble-minded.* Ninth and Tenth Annual Reports, 1917-1918. Carl J. Hedin, superintendent. West Pownal, Me. pp. 32.

The completion of a dormitory for boys and recommended construction of a new dormitory for girls indicate a recognition of the need of caring for the two hundred cases on the waiting list for admission to this school. It is recommended that Maine adopt the program for the care of extra-institutional feeble-minded which Dr. Walter E. Fernald has recommended for Massachusetts, quoted as follows: 1. That some definite state authority should have friendly guidance of all mental defectives in the state who are not adequately cared for by their friends. Those who can lead wholesome, harmless lives in the community should be allowed to do so. 2. This central authority should have authority to safe-guard in institutions those who need institutional care. 3. There should be a state-wide census of the feeble-minded. 4. There should be clinics for mental examinations within easy access of all parts of the State. 5. There should be required extension of special classes for mental defectives in the public schools. 6. There should be special treatment by the courts of defective delinquents, and suitable institutional provision for this class." (W.W.C.)

**New Hampshire.** *School for Feeble-minded.* Report, 1921. Benjamin Ward Baker, superintendent. Laconia, New Hampshire.

A descriptive and well-illustrated booklet containing general information concerning the history, development, and present conditions of the school. (W.W.C.)

**New York.** *State Commission of Prisons.* Annual Report, 1920. John S. Kennedy, president. Ossining, N.Y. pp. 542.

This commission is charged by law with the visitation and inspection of all penal institutions in which sane adults are confined and with the collection of statistical information relating thereto. A marked decrease in prison population is attributed largely to "the curtailment of the liquor traffic, industrial conditions which have afforded opportunity for employment at high wages, and probation. The greatest reduction in population was in the county jails and (county) penitentiaries." The State Farm for Women has been turned over for the use as a colony for mental defectives. It is recommended that all inmates now in eastern New York Reformatory at Napanoch be returned to the state reformatory at Elmira and the plant used for segregation and care of mentally defective male delinquents. The report contains detailed information concerning inspection, copies of reports of special investigations due to mismanagement of certain institutions for delinquents, and about seventy-five pages of statistical data. (W.W.C.)

**New York:** *State Probation Commission.* Thirteenth Annual Report, 1919. Chas. L. Chute, secretary. Albany, N.Y. pp. 560.

The actual number of convictions for crime in New York state showed a decrease



of 1957 for the year 1919. This seems to have been brought about in spite of war, reconstruction, and unrest by increased social control. One of the factors of social control is the probation system which "has substituted social investigation, a real understanding of the offender, and helpful supervision for indifference and harsh imprisonment which does not reform." At the close of the year 15,685 adults and children were on probation in care of 351 probation officers (221 salaried) in the state. "Seventy-nine and six-tenths per cent of all who finished probation last year completed their terms and were discharged improved." The average per capita for institutional care for offenders was \$396.56, the average per capital cost of probation was \$22.64; it costs from 17 to 18 times as much to maintain an offender in prison as to supervise him for one year on probation. Defendants from New York City Reformatory are paroled and supervised by forty-five parole officers who give persons released on parole helpful and close supervision similar to that afforded by the probation officers in the courts. The parole work of the state institutions is handicapped by the inadequate number of parole officers employed (thirty) and by the size of the territory to be covered. Nearly 5000 persons are on parole all the time from state prisons, reformatories, and training schools. It is recommended that greater coordination be brought about between the probation and parole systems. In addition to detailed reports and statistics concerning the work and activities of the state probation commission, this publication includes, as appendices, proceedings of the state conference of probation officers and of the state conference of magistrates. The proceedings include addresses on many significant problems related to delinquency and the treatment of offenders. (W. W. C.)

North Carolina. *Caswell Training School*. Two Years Ending November 30, 1918. C. Banks McNairy, superintendent. Kingston, N. C. pp. 42.

The aim of this school is "to segregate, care for, train, and educate as their mentality will permit the state's mental defectives; to disseminate knowledge concerning the extent and menace of mental deficiency; and to suggest and initiate methods for its control and ultimate eradication from our people, with the hope that an extension bureau may be created, and a psychological clinic established where all criminal defectives may be sent for study and observation, where proper estimates of their mentality may be made, expert advice as to their responsibility given, and the best methods of treatment suggested for their future happiness and development." On Dec. 1, 1918, the school had a population of 76 boys and 122 girls. (W. W. C.)

Oregon. *State Board of Control*. Biennial Report, 1920. R. B. Goodin, secretary. Salem, Ore. pp. 248.

"The first obligation of the board of control is to insure safe-keeping and proper care of all persons who have been entrusted to the institutions. The matter of giving adequate, sympathetic service necessarily outweighs that of economy." (p. 17). This statement is evinced in the discussion of the various administrative

problems of the institutions under direction of the board. The proportional average daily population of Oregon institutions are as follows:

State hospitals.....	64.14 per cent
Institution for feeble-minded .....	12.6 per cent
Penitentiary.....	7.9 per cent
Boys' training school.....	4.02 per cent
Soldiers' home.....	3.72 per cent
School for deaf.....	2.86 per cent
Tuberculosis hospital.....	2.3 per cent
Girls' school.....	1.2 per cent
School for blind.....	1.17 per cent

Over 15 per cent of all patients admitted to Oregon State Hospital gave positive evidence of the presence of syphilis. As only four or five per cent of persons suffering from syphilis develop disease of the central nervous system that would cause commitment to hospitals for insane, it is estimated that 4600 persons in the western part of Oregon have this disease. It is recommended that the state should establish a home for the youthful offenders and use the present State Training School plant for a reformatory. (W.W.C.)

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## NOTES AND COMMENT

### MINNESOTA RESEARCH BUREAU IN MENTAL DEFICIENCY

The Minnesota State Board of Control has established a central research bureau in mental deficiency, under the direction of Dr. Fred Kuhlmann. The functions of this bureau will be to make all examinations in mental deficiency that are called for in the commitment of cases to the several institutions; to conduct a free mental clinic at the Saint Paul office, and such other clinics about the state as circumstances and means may permit. It will endeavor also to make any other investigations concerning mental deficiency that may aid the state board in the management of its institutions. The staff of the bureau consists of the former staff of the research department of the Minnesota School for Feeble-minded, the latter department being thereby discontinued.

### WHITTIER SOCIAL CASE HISTORY MANUAL

In response to numerous requests that the Whittier social case history method be made available for general use, the California Bureau of Juvenile Research has issued a Manual setting forth the method in detail. The Manual contains 100 pages, and in addition to a general discussion of social case work, it includes an outline for reporting the history of individuals, three sample case histories, numerous charts, and references. The price of the Manual is 25 cents, post-paid. It may be purchased direct from the office of the Bureau at the Whittier State School, Whittier, California.



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